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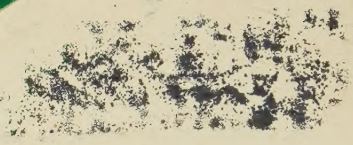

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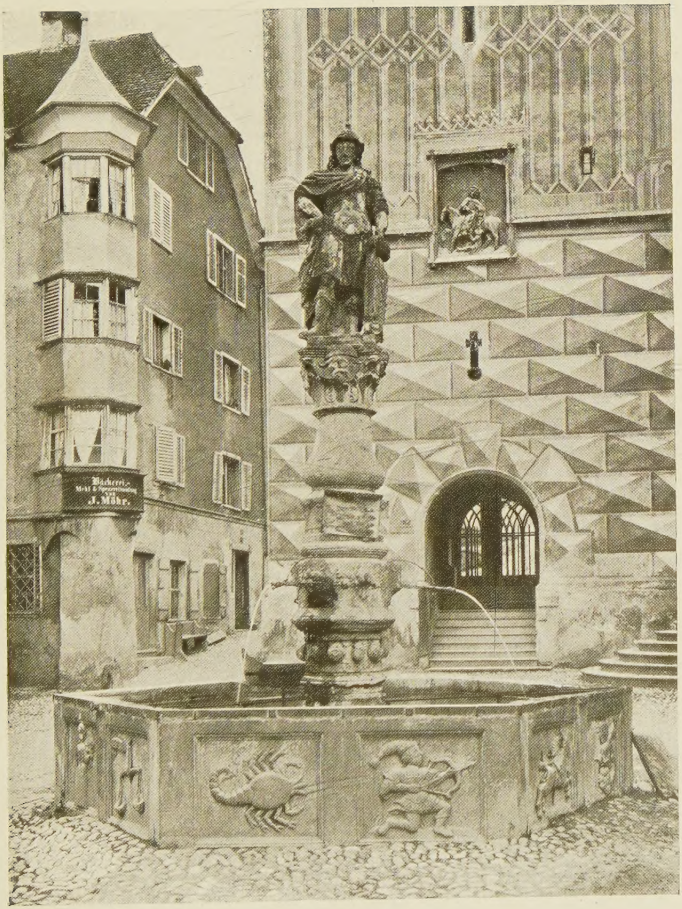

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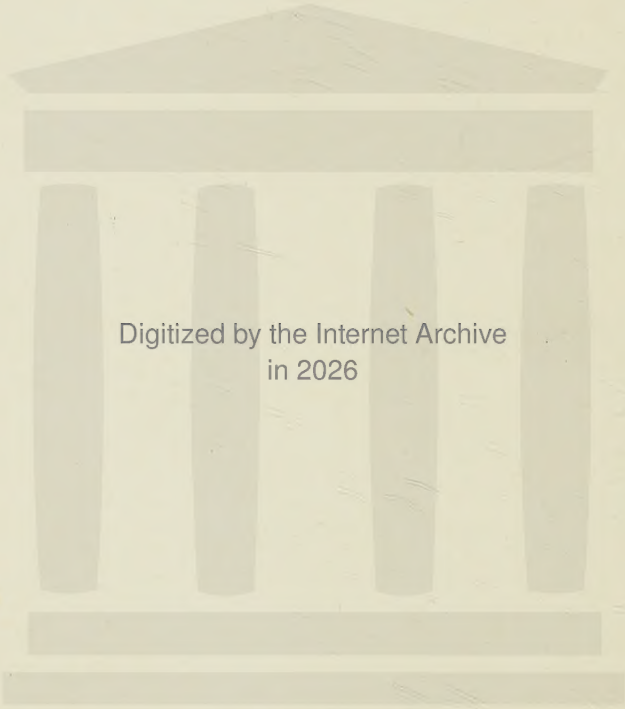
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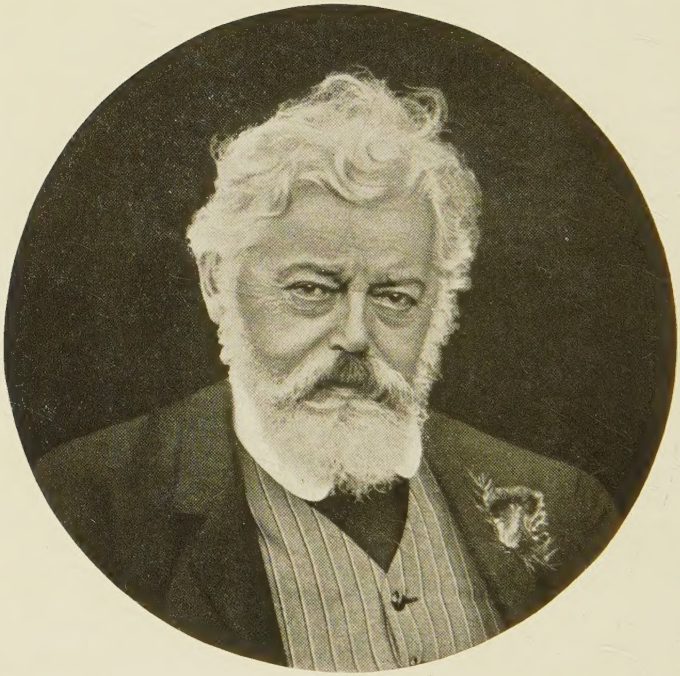

DR. L. FORRER

(*The President of the Republic*, 1912)

Switzerland of the Swiss

By

Frank Webb

Officier d'Académie

Author of "La Suisse Intime"

NEW YORK
CHARLES SCRIBNER'S SONS
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1914

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PREFACE

It is hoped that this work will be the means of conveying an accurate impression of Switzerland of to-day, and throw some light upon the life and pursuits of the inhabitants. It has been the writer's endeavour to avoid subjects of the guide-book order, while sparing the reader all unnecessary platitudes, the pitfall of writers of this class of book. He has emphasized what is commendable and lightly touched upon that which is open to criticism.

It is a curious fact that writers, for centuries, have dwelt upon the avarice and inhospitableness of the Swiss.

Frau Kordon, an Austrian poetess of some renown, comments in verse upon Schiller's famous lines, "Ein harmlos Volk von Hirten," and says—

> "Es nannte dich ein harmlos Volk von Hirten
> Der Grössten einer einst in grosser Zeit;
> O Sang, so hehr und traut, so grün wie Myrthen,
> Wie haben die Besung'nen dich entweiht?" . . .

Ruskin says that the Swiss are stubborn, with more than recorded stubbornness; devoid of all romantic sentiment, neither chivalrously generous nor pathetically humane.

Other authorities: Voltaire, Mme. de Staël, Hugo, Dumas, might be cited, whose opinions corroborate those already mentioned. None, however, better than the writer, in the course of his thirty years' contact with the Switzers, has had the same opportunities of judging them.

On the other hand, the notes on Art and Literature will open up a new vista, and it is hoped may induce the vast numbers of English and American visitors to this land to read some of the authors and thus become better acquainted with the manners and customs of the people.

The author has had recourse to such useful works as

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the "Eidgen. Statistisches Jahrbuch," the "Dictionnaire Géographique de la Suisse," Numa Droz' "Essais Economiques," and to Pierre Clerget's excellent "Étude Économique et Sociale de la Suisse" (Librairie Armand Colin, Paris), as well as to Irving B. Richman's "Appenzell," besides other works mentioned in various parts of the book, and to the authors of these he expresses his indebtedness.

Several of the sketches have appeared at different periods in *The Swiss and Nice Times.*

Figures are given according to the decimal system of the country. As they are quoted chiefly as a means of comparison, they will be perfectly understandable. The English £1 sterling is equal to 25 francs. A kilometre is 0·621 of a mile, and a mile 1·609 kilometres. One hundred miles, 160·93 kilometres. A hectolitre is a hundred litres, equivalent to about the same number of quarts.

After what has been said in the opening chapter, the Swiss folks may express astonishment at this new addition to the pile of books on their country, and argue, in the words of Racine: "*Nous ne méritons ni cet excès d'honneur, ni cette indignité.*"

This, indeed, would be a case of ingratitude.

F. W.

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Switzerland of the Swiss

CHAPTER I

A GENERAL SURVEY

How comes it that Switzerland has tempted the pen of the writer more than any other country on the map of Europe ?

The Cradle of Liberty.

There are other small countries: Holland, Servia, Luxemburg ; even that other Republic of Andorra. The truth is, Switzerland appeals to our idealism. In our college days we were taught to look upon this little corner of Europe as the cradle of liberty ; liberty that the sons of the soil fought stubbornly for from the early centuries, and what is more, have succeeded in maintaining. To what psychological influence this fierce struggle was due, it is not necessary to consider now, but if the Swiss have championed the cause of their own liberty throughout past centuries, they, in the early ages, formed the bulk of the fighting armies of Europe and were the defenders of monarchies and thrones.

From the days of Charles the Bold (A.D. 1470) to the fall of the kingdom of Ferdinand of Naples (1860) hardly a battle was fought in Europe without the presence on one side or another, and sometimes on both, of Swiss soldiers.

A leading French paper made the curious proposal that a Swiss Guard should be recruited for service in China. This was at the time of the revolution of the Boxers. The proposition was brought to the notice of the federal authorities. The reply officially given was that the present constitution forbids the enlistment of Swiss citizens for foreign service.

The days are over when a Swiss Guard was considered the proper thing for a monarch to have, who valued his safety more than he trusted his own subjects. The Pope, it is true, has a Swiss Guard, but these men are not enlisted in this country. We congratulate Switzerland on the fact that though knowing how to defend herself, her efforts tend to peaceful issues.

Perhaps no country has been so much written about as this little land. Poets have sung its praise. The philosopher has been to it for his examples of civism and patriotism. With the rising tide of books and pamphlets, the Switzer has come to resent this excess of notice and attention. It is not an uncommon complaint with him that his country serves as the experimental field of Europe, because it has been called the home of a temperate democracy governed by common sense. It has been lauded to the skies, and occasionally criticized, by the few knowing ones. It is a convenient summer hunting-ground for commissions and delegations, on investigation bent. Writers on a pet theory are as thick as leaves in Vallombrosa. Many of these are studying the militia organization, others are interested in social legislation or scholastic systems, the working of mountain railroads, or the making of chocolate, cheese or jams, all admirable produce of the country. The result of all this strenuous mental work is a mass of voluminous reports, pamphlets, tomes and script of all kinds that nobody reads, while the Swiss merely smiles, amused by the exaggeration of style and other eccentricities.

One writer affirms that the Swiss people are an example to the world and a model State. Another will say that as a people they combine the grace of the French with the solidity of the Teuton. They are amiable, but reserved; a worthy race, without false pride, but conscious of their value and merit. In other words, they deserve to be the rulers of the world, which they would govern to perfection if only allowed the chance.

Too Officious Assiduities.

Thus much we have heard said by Switzers in presence of the notice and attention they receive. These fulsome eulogies may inwardly gratify them, for human nature is alike. One can never be too sure. However, it all confirms the remark already made that the Swiss are the people most talked and written about in Europe.

As for a just appreciation of the people, their manners and customs, the result of a sober-minded opinion and careful observation, we must agree with the Switzers themselves. To find it in the tangle of books, poems, and MSS., such a thing would be as difficult as the task Diogenes set himself.

As a specimen of the lyricism that may flatter the Swiss, although they outwardly and not unreasonably complain of it, the example herewith may serve as a specimen.

The trouble is, the writer, willingly or not, makes one fundamental error in his soaring after effect. There happen to be more than three languages in Switzerland, and he has left out not the most unimportant, the Romansch, which has a place among living languages.

" The truth is that Switzerland is the highest as she is the oldest clear symbol of racial unity. Her trinity of languages is, as one of her poets describes, the conjunction of the national tongues, on a parallel with the trinity of race, for the three races, German, French, Italian are three-in-one, which is Swiss."

In what way must one approach the subject of Switzerland of the Swiss ? Are we to deal with the Swiss of to-day in his pastoral life, the Swiss as the modern mechanic, or the hotel-keeper, all three of which play a leading part in the social system ?

It is as well to examine individually the different elements that help to make the social structure. But better still to trace in a short sketch the Swiss from his early origin, in his rapid development, to his present highly fit, cultivated, and prosperous condition.

Early History.

Helvetia, the symbolic figure of the Fatherland, takes her name from the Helvetians, a Celtic tribe that settled in a part of actual Switzerland and did away with the lake-dwellers.

By the time (58 B.C.) Julius Cæsar had defeated the Helvetians they had lost all traces of their Celtic origin.

In A.D. 264 the *Alemannen* made their first considerable incursion into Helvetia. They made another in 305. Finally, in 406, they gained permanent possession of the country. They came from the region between the Main and the Rhine ; they were called Suabians, whence the Latinized word *Suebi* of Cæsar and Tacitus. They, also, according to some authorities, at one time were called Mannie, a word said to mean united or nation. Later the word Heer (army) being prefixed to Mannie, the result was the compound word Heermanie, meaning army-nation. This word, through mispronunciation, became at length Sheermanie (Germany), whence Airmanie and Allmannie.

The Suabian, or Aleman, was tall, strong, with light hair and blue eyes ; in other words, typical of the Teuton races and the German-Swiss of the present day.

As we are dealing with the individual, without retracing his genealogy, it is only right to say that from an ethnical point of view few pure types of the original races are to be found at the present day : the dolichocephalic have broadened out, the brachycephalic lengthened. The Alemans are of a less vivid auburn, and with a Rhetian skull will be seen a German physiognomy and vice versa.

The inhabitants are separated by language, a fact that explains their autonomy or free state. Had Helvetia become completely Alemanic she might have been subject to the influences of national affinities, such as go to constitute a monarchy or other form of personal rule. This circumstance is worthy of mention in order to show that the ethnical question does not solely explain the special condition of the Swiss system ; but that the fact of diversity of race and character,

the difference of language, and, above all, the geographical question are all-powerful factors in the traditional unity of the country in a bond of freedom.

The division of Helvetian soil between the Alemans and Franks brought about the first diversity of tongues. In accordance with the law of nature, the greater fertility of the northern races and that aspiration of nations to trek westward and to follow the sun in its course will always cause a predominance of the Teuton. A startling proof of which is the rapid Germanization of the Italian Canton and the French-speaking Jura.

It is among the pastoral populations that live retired and isolated in the remote valleys or on the mountain plateaux that will be found the remnants of types of the ancestors of the Swiss people. These democrats still adhere to the primitive forms, as, for example, the Landsgemeinde.

As regards the theory of Swiss independence, much has been said on the subject. But it is sufficiently explained by the geographical situation of the country and a natural love of liberty that causes peoples of opposite nationalities to hold together.

Causes of Independence.

Eugène Rambert has written : " Switzerland exists because the Swiss people will it ; their only incentive is the freedom they enjoy. Other countries exist by the bond of race and blood."

Switzerland is a vast stronghold of mountains that no one country can conquer, much less hold possession of. History is there to prove it. And living in these mountains, in the higher valleys, a people was brought up to freedom. The severe climate engendered in the goatherds of the mountains a disdain for death and a thirst for liberty. Constantly face to face with danger they wanted no tutelary lord, but were able to settle their affairs among themselves.

As early as the thirteenth century, popular legislation was completely developed in the forest cantons as well as in Glarus and Appenzell. The judicial and legislative deliberations of

their assemblies, at first subordinate to the Holy Empire, ended by becoming entirely free of control. The long enjoyment of these ancient rights did much to prevent the Confederation at a later date from being subject to one particular house and to keep up the Republican spirit, among at least a part of the Swiss people. The Republican spirit of the Confederation succeeded, gradually, in drawing the independent cantons into the cycle, these being, as a matter of fact, actuated by a sentiment of self-preservation; but convinced that the Confederation would respect their autonomy.

The present union of the twenty-two cantons was not accomplished without difficulty. A great barrier was found in rival interests, racial distrusts, the element of discord introduced by the Reformation, as also in the French revolutionary spirit. The Confederation has triumphantly survived all these crises and gathered beneath her protecting wing such opposing elements as the Rhetian and Valaisan leagues, and intellectual Neuchâtel and Geneva. The present age of general development and progress can only strengthen the bond.

Switzerland owes, as it has been said, her peculiar independence to her geographical situation. "Switzerland is a geographical expression," was one of Bismarck's favourite sayings. Something more than a mere expression. The whole country covers an extent of 15,965 square miles, and serves as an admirable buffer to certain States. By guaranteeing her independence the surrounding powers have less frontier line to submit to vigilant surveillance. It is to the high altitude—the highest part of Europe—that Switzerland owes many of her characteristics, and also to her central position on the map of Europe, the fact of having been overrun by different peoples from the prehistoric ages. Only three-quarters of the area of the soil is productive. The habitable part is even less extended. The pasturages lie higher up than the highest mountain chalets.

According to the "Dictionnaire Géographique," the country

is divided into three regions, which, from south to north, are the Alps, the Plateau, and the Jura. The Alps occupy nearly three-fifths of the territory, forming an imposing mass. The immense valleys, longitudinal with the rivers Rhône, Rhine, Reuss, Tessin, Aare, and Toce, mark out, in fan-like shape, so to say, six other ranges at the base of the Gothard.

The Plateau, which forms a sort of basin between the Alps and the Jura, consists of about a fourth (29·5 per cent.) of the entire country ; less of a plateau since the prehistoric era, owing to the rivers that run through it and the various lakes.

The highest mountain entirely on Swiss soil is the Dom (14,942 ft.), of the Valaisan Alps. The Finsteraarhorn (14,026 ft.) is the highest peak of the Bernese Alps. The contrast of climate is consequently very marked within a comparatively short range. In Canton Valais (through which the Rhône flows) you will find a southern climate in the enclosed valley, grapes and prickly pears growing. Higher up, the walnut-trees and grasshoppers chirping, rich vineyards and fields of maize. Progressively, as you ascend the mountains, you come to the oak and elm trees, then the pines, which soon you get beyond and come upon saxifrage with briar leaves and other plants of Lapland and northern regions. All this in a space of half-a-day's climb.

The Swiss Confederation is composed of twenty-two cantons. Three of these—Basel, Unterwalden, and Appenzell—are divided into half-cantons. A half-canton differs from a whole in that it is accorded less representation in the National Assembly.

The Population.

No country shows such a diversity of aspect as regards variety of race, manners and customs, as well as occupations, as these organisms. The most remote document relating to the population of Helvetia is a passage in Cæsar's "Commentaries." According to this authority the inhabitants numbered 336,000 souls, dwelling in twelve towns and four hundred villages. The first Federal Census was taken in 1817, but the figures obtained were not considered reliable. The census

taken periodically from 1850 to 1910 shows an increase of 57 per cent. of the entire population. The males outnumber the females. In the large cities it is estimated that there are 88 females to every 100 of the other sex, and 99 in other parts of the country. The excess in proportion (96 per cent.) of females is to be met with in the urban " agglomerations," owing to domestic service. In the country the males are often in the majority, owing to the immigration of girls to towns, while farm-hands remain on the land. Then again, emigration to foreign lands often draws on the male country population ; thus, no strict rule can be established as to the male and female population outside towns.

Federal statistics show the fluctuation of the marriage-rate. From 1896 to 1910 the mean number given is 7·4 marriages per thousand. The agrarian districts are lower in the statistics than the manufacturing centres. Religion has much to do with the fluctuations. It is a fact that the Catholics marry less than the Protestants, whatever their occupations or pursuits. There is a higher percentage of marriages in the German-speaking cantons. The general age at which people marry is twenty-eight for men and twenty-six for women. Over twenty-eight years of age more than half the male population are married men.

The manufacturing towns and Protestant cantons hold the record for early marriages. Since 1870 the marriages between couples of different religions have increased from 3 per cent. to 9 per cent.

The statistics concerning divorce only date from 1876. The first records show a decrease, then there is a stationary period, and now, since 1896, an alarming upward movement.

In cases of divorce there are no restrictions contained in the final decision, such as forbidding the respondent to marry again, as happens in America.

Religious belief, too, shows its influence in regard to divorce. The average rate of divorce is 0·67 per 1,000 among Catholics, 2·65 among Protestants, and 4·02 in cases of mixed marriages.

It is calculated, then, that the Protestants divorce four times more than the Catholics, and in cases of mixed marriages six times more divorces take place. Townsfolk are inclined to divorce more than countryfolk, while a difference of age between the wedded couple, especially if the wife be the elder, is proved to be a frequent cause for separation. Out of every 100 cases of divorce 40 are childless.

The fluctuations of the birth-rates are, generally speaking, on a parallel with those concerning marriage. There are periods of rise and fall, partly influenced by the economic conditions of the country. For the period 1871-1890, births were 30·8 per 1,000 inhabitants taking Switzerland on the whole.[1] The average number of children per family is 4·1. The number of illegitimate births is decreasing. The proportion is, for Geneva 10 per cent., Bâle 8 per cent., from statistics referring to 1900-1910. The number of males born is 106 as compared to 100 girls. This slight predominance of males is general to all cantons.

The death-rate shows signs of decreasing, taking the population as a whole. The average number is 23·8 per 1,000 for the period from 1871–75 : the 1910 Census gives 15·1.

In 1910 the births for the entire country were 10 per cent. over the number of deaths, and vary from 1·4 for Geneva to 14·6 in Canton Uri. Mortality is more considerable among the unmarried people than among the married, while deaths among children was averaged at 17·9 per cent. in 1900. As usual, infantile mortality is due to insufficient milk nourishment. In one part of Canton St. Gallen it has been shown that only 15 per cent. of the newly born are nursed at the breast, and the deaths among infants reached the awful rate of 34 per cent.

Emigration is decreasing in proportion with the growing prosperity of the country. The federal authorities record only emigrants who cross the seas and hold no records of those who settle in neighbouring countries. The annual average of

[1] The rate in 1910 had fallen to 25 per 1,000.

emigrants from 1881 to 1885 was 10,505, and 5,512 from 1902 to 1911. Farm-hands and other country people form the majority—89 per cent. of emigrants go to the United States and 6 per cent. to Argentina. The Swiss leaves his country easily. Several hundreds of thousands live abroad. After the United States, the greatest number is to be found in France—74,735 in 1896. There were 55,494 in Germany in 1900; 17,710 in Argentina, and 9,079 in Italy. There are comparatively few Swiss in England.

From 1850 to 1900 the number of foreigners residing in the country was quadrupled, passing from 3 to 11·6 per cent.

Immigration is especially intense in the frontier cantons. This fact is looked upon as a national calamity. By this steady and pacific invasion it is feared that the national character of certain cantons will be effaced: Bâle, Zurich, and Geneva, for instance.

The influx is not of such a nature as to affect the country in general, representing, however, 10 per cent. of the whole population.

The movement of the foreign population from 1888 to 1900 is seen by the following table—

	1888	1900
Germany	112,342	168,451
Italy	41,881	117,059
France	53,627	58,522
Austria-Hungary ..	14,181	24,433
Great Britain	2,577	3,535

The Germans have settled in preference in the northern cantons, where their language, if not spoken, is understood. However, like Italians, they are to be met with in all parts of the country.

French settlers rarely go beyond the French-speaking cantons, 38,846 inhabiting Geneva and 7,700 Canton Vaud, 5,500 that of Berne, 4,400 Neuchâtel, and 1,800 Bâle. Naturalization is not proportional with the importance of the foreign population—the average from 1900 to 1903 being 866 yearly, in all 2,500 persons.

The question of tongue is an indication of the movement of the population.

According to federal statistics the increase in the use of the various languages spoken in the country by the whole population is shown in the accompanying table—

THE SPEECH OF THE PEOPLE

	1880	1910
German	2,082,855	2,599,154
French	634,855	796,244
Italian	155,130	301,325
Romansch	38,357	39,834
Other tongues ..	6,557	28,445

The Romanche (Romansch) is spoken only in the Grisons (Graubunden), principally in the Rhine valley and that of the Inn, better known as the Engadine. It is a near approach to Latin.

Italian is the language spoken in Canton Ticino (Tessin). German and French are the tongues employed in the rest of the country. The dividing line on the frontier separating the lands where the two languages are spoken is very tortuous. The line zig-zags along the Jura, passing Bienne as far as Neuchâtel, then crossing Lake Morat, follows the River Sarine to Fribourg, divided into two sections, and continuing by Oldenhorn and Wildstrubel, descend to Canton Valais (Wallis) until the Italian frontier is attained.

This matter of different languages in one country is of immense importance.

The onward march of the German tongue is irresistible. In the fifth and ninth centuries, from the second to the thirteenth, and fifteenth to the eighteenth centuries, its advance was very marked. In the eighteenth century a slight reaction set in. The French language seemed to reassert its influence, owing to the fact of Fribourg, Bienne, Sion, and Sierre returning to the Roman faith. However, the influence was only apparent, as there is no resisting the advance of the sturdier Germanic races.

This question of languages is of deep interest, as it is a demonstration of a struggle between two races, a struggle that becomes fierce in towns on the frontier line separating the two different speaking peoples, because all the questions of personal interests, political supremacy and civic power are involved.

As we have seen 70·3 per cent. of the population speak German, 22 per cent. French, 6·8 per cent. Italian, and 1 per cent. Romansch.

The nation, as confederated cantons, was only definitely constituted a century ago.

Once across the French frontier one is immediately impressed by the predominance of the German-speaking element. The more agreeable life, the fascination of the more refined manners, language and mode of living and dress in French-speaking Switzerland are a perfect loadstone to the rougher, peasant-like Switzers of the other cantons, doubtless even more so in the case of the feminine sex. Being of a sturdier race, they soon take possession of the place, and what is more, owing to the fact of their numbers and rights as Confederates, assume an air of mastery and superiority.

The new-comers may bring healthier blood, but their free and easy ways, their assertiveness, are by no means agreeable to the Genevese, who, in their minority, form an aristocratic and intellectual caste. The avidity with which their German-speaking Confédérés seize any opportunity of extending the influence of their language is greatly exercising the minds of the French-speaking population.

Not so long ago the town of Bienne, not far from Neuchâtel, was requested by the federal postal authorities to choose definitely between that name and the German one of Biel, by which it is also known. Now as this is a place at which the German and French languages are about equally used by the people, the decision was arrived at to do neither, but to adopt the double name Biel-Bienne on its postmark. One reason alleged for the decision is that there are other Biels

and also other Biennes, but that this is the only true and original Biel-Bienne, and that the double name renders confusion impossible. The number of places bearing names differing with the language used is very considerable. Geneva, of course, is Genf in German and Ginevra in Italian. Bâle and Lucerne each change their pronunciation. Coire is Chur in German, and its canton, the Grisons, is Graubunden. Some of the names in the Valais change entirely, thus Sion becomes Sitten, Sierre Siders, the Val d'Anniviers becomes the Eifischthal (what on earth is an egg-fish-valley ?) in German. Loëcheles-Bains is the French name for the resort also visited under the style of Leukerbad, while the traveller bound for Visp may forget to leave the train at Viège. We note that, as another measure of "Germanization," the section of the railway that belongs to French-Switzerland was asked to use German names in its time-tables where German is spoken. But there's the rub. At most of the places named French is spoken, too; in fact, we carried away from a visit to Sierre the impression that about everyone in the town spoke French, German, Italian, and—English, about equally well. Still there is left open to the company the resource adopted by Biel-Bienne, and some day we may expect to hear the unoffending Calvinist city dubbed Genf-Genève, to such extent is the Germanization proceeding.

The movement relative to the spread of languages is being watched with interest. Go where you will in the French-speaking cantons and you will find all the businesses in the hands of German-Swiss or Germans. At Lausanne, Montreux, and Vevey, all the popular callings, such as tailors, shoemakers, coiffeurs, pastrycooks, bakers, are taken by German-speaking people. Intellectual professions having necessitated some studies are occupied by the real German—chemists and druggists and booksellers, for example; professors of music and languages also.

The cities of Geneva, Lausanne, Montreux, and Zurich and Bâle deserve to be called cities of foreigners, even more so

than some cities in America and other countries to which emigration is largely directed.

Taking Geneva as an instance, the increase of the city in later years is a fact patent to all, and is greatly due to the amount of foreign capital invested in building speculations, particularly French capital, introduced owing to the unstable policy of France.

Germans would like to find a safe investment for their surplus millions at Zurich and invest in property, but the terrible income-tax acts as a deterrent and a *douche*. This notwithstanding, Zurich has its share of foreign capital.

But to return to Geneva, we find that the outlying townships are being rapidly swallowed up in what the census-report calls "agglomeration." Since 1850, in fact, the population of the canton has just about doubled, having risen from 64,000 to 165,667 (1911). The first ten years of that period witnessed a comparatively rapid growth of the population owing to the demolition of the fortifications and consequent free expansion of the city. Since 1888 there has been another rapid increase and especially since 1895.

Geneva.

	1908	1910	Increase in two years
City and suburbs	121,192	132,866	— 11,674
Country ..	30,542	32,801	— 2,259

It will be seen that in the increase the foreigners outnumber the Genevese and Confederates—

	1908	1910	Increase
Genevese	50,724	53,416	— 2,692
Confederates (from other Cantons) ..	38,953	43,328	— 4,375
Foreigners	62,057	68,923	— 6,866

The augmentation of the foreign population for Geneva in two years, according to nationality, is as follows—

	1908	1910	Increase
French	37,087	38,846	— 1,759
Italians	14,322	17,644	— 3,322
Germans	5,059	5,587	— 528

	1908	1910	Increase
Russians	2,353	2,461	— 108
English	616	713	— 97
Austro-Hungarians ..	678	937	— 259
Americans	465	781	— 316
Various	1,477	1,954	— 477

The latter figure includes Bulgarians, Turks, Greeks, Armenians, Egyptians, Persians, Servians, Roumanians, Japanese, Montenegrins, and Siamese, who, together with the Russians, form a not inconsiderable group of Orientals.

Taking the figures for the "agglomeration" only during the past years, we find that the city has gained 4 per cent. during the period, and the suburbs 28 per cent., the greatest increase being at Plainpalais and Petit Saconnex. The small increase for the city is explained by the piercing of new streets and consequent displacement of a portion of the more crowded population. The increase in number of Genevese citizens has been almost nil, of other Swiss 12 per cent., and of foreigners 20 per cent. It will be seen by the accompanying table that the Genevese only form one-third of the population of their own canton, being nearly equalled by those from other parts of Switzerland, who are increasing at a greater rate than themselves, and being far outnumbered, in the proportion of five to four, by foreigners of various nationalities. It is calculated, in fact, that at this rate in another quarter of a century the foreigners would equal in number the whole Swiss population of Geneva.

This question of denationalization of their canton is a cause of no little uneasiness to the Genevese, and all sorts of projects are suggested in order to prevent what threatens to be the eventual extinction of the Genevois. In the Genevese population proper, there are every year 1,000 deaths to 750 births, so that were it not for the naturalization of foreigners their numbers would decrease alarmingly. Notwithstanding the incorporation of naturalized citizens the foreign element averages 40·9 per cent. of the population of the canton. That which alarms still more the old Genevese element are the

unequivocal signs of a change in character of the inhabitants. The new kinds of amusements, such as music-halls, etc., separate the old from the new element and create a feeling of isolation; thus the former appear to be left aside, a negligible quantity within their own walls.

In examining the question, a writer notes that the majority of settlers are French and Italian, the former known for their fidelity to their fatherland, and not at all likely to change their nationality. The Italians, chiefly labourers of all classes, return home in winter, when the building trade slackens.

M. Boissier, writing on the subject, sees a remedy in the compulsory naturalization of all children born in the canton or arriving before the age of seven. In such a matter it seems likely that the countries whence the new settlers come, by no means anxious to lose the rights to their youth, may have something to say in the matter.

It is only fair to say that this pacific invasion affects only the frontier cantons. The forest and rural cantons are less influenced by the inroad of the foreigner.

The reason for this phenomenon, this wholesale taking possession of part of a country, is explained by the attraction the city has for rural populations. Geneva, in the heart of Savoy and Ain, is their natural capital, where the advantages offered for education are greater, and it being a sort of miniature Paris, exercises its fascination.

Foreign Inhabitants.

According to recent statistics the number of foreigners per 1,000 inhabitants in different foreign countries was as follows: Spain, 2; Italy, 9; Hungary, 10; Netherlands, 11; Germany, 14; Austria, 20; Belgium, 28; France, 32; Switzerland, 110. Thus Switzerland counts one foreigner to every nine inhabitants. In Geneva there are four foreigners to every ten inhabitants.

Some surprise will be expressed by the reader at the stress laid upon this question of a foreign invasion of the little

country, as it has been a common belief that for the last century the Swiss people have been doing everything possible to attract the foreigner and his money. True, not sufficient account was taken of the foreigner who comes to cut out the native in his wage-earning pursuits. Even these workers have contributed their share towards the prosperity of the land. The surprising transformation of the cities, too, is due to foreign capital. I fail to understand the apparent despair of the Swiss in presence of this foreign invasion. Certain it is, he never could have developed his country to the extent it has reached all alone. But one reason for sympathy with him in his lament is the possibility of certain spots losing their national character.

Years ago the appeals to the foreigner to come and spend his wealth in Switzerland led to its being called the table d'hôte of Europe, and now with the multiplication of Verkehrs-bureaux (Advertising offices) these appeals are more urgent and strenuous. The poor worker considers that he, too, has a right to try his luck, just as well as the wealthy pleasure-seeker. We cannot always pick and choose.

Evidently, to see a large foreign element settling among a native population and through its industry and enterprise taking possession of businesses, is a somewhat abnormal sight, and this fact has engendered a deal of bitter feeling while causing another form of phobia that may be termed " baiting the foreigner." It is no unusual sight at holiday times to see the streets of Geneva full of French soldiers in uniform, home on a visit to their relatives. Bands of music of French friendly societies flying the French colours promenade the streets. The last straw that breaks the camel's back is when a French flag is hoisted on some building or in a private garden. The irritation of the Genevese finds expression in articles in their local newspapers. At times, the French Press is compelled to call them back to reason.

" It is the French nightmare that haunts them," wrote the editor of the *Progrès* of Lyons (October 5th, 1907), " in

a country that willy-nilly France will continue to fertilize and make prosperous.

"'What are these Frenchmen doing here?' the old Genevese, whose ancestors immigrated after the Edict of Nantes, exclaim. And gradually distrust is spread among the inhabitants; it reaches the tables of the cafés, where there is always some wide-mouthed patriot to shout out: 'What are these Francelets or Francillons, these Whiterats (the Savoyards) and the Tioquants (inhabitants of neighbouring Gex) doing here at Geneva?'

"What are they doing? Merely living like the rest of the world, under the protection of international treaties, whose reciprocity affords the same rights to Swiss citizens settled in Paris. At Paris and Lyons, or in London or Berlin the large Swiss colonies never hear unpleasant reflections about their intrusion. They are never told daily that they are not wanted.

"Naturally, these incessant complaints are not intended for the 60 or 70,000 French tourists, lovers of beautiful nature, who visit the Canton in summer.

"To imply that the French population of Geneva is a burden to the city is a crime. The mere supposition is an insult. The large hospitality so often harped upon, is of the kind that is paid for. The Frenchman of Geneva pays rates and taxes, including the hospital-tax. He contributes his share towards the school-boards and asylums. Meanwhile, the poor asylums and the general hospital only admit native Genevese, although exceptions are made in the latter case. Foreigners under English rule, whether strangers or naturalized, all benefit by the charities under the Poor Law."

The article goes on to prove that this is the case in other countries, such as Germany, Norway, Japan, etc. It furthermore demonstrates that which everyone knows, that the immense number of foreign children attending the schools helps to enrich the city. Dwellings must be occupied, boarding-houses visited by families, all of which means money

spent. The University, colleges, industrial and art schools are certainly not kept up solely for the Genevese.

Thus it will be seen the Genevese do not accept their gradual effacement without some feeling of resentment, which although unreasonable, demonstrates a deeply-seated patriotic feeling.

This envious spirit, just alluded to, is general to all Switzerland, wherever the foreigner is engaged in prosperous business. In Zurich it is the Schwabe, although the only people that find grace in the eyes of the Swiss are the Germans, possibly owing to their superior mind and because they represent a powerful nation.

Italians are engaged in selling their fruits and market produce, and a few in retailing tortoiseshell articles and coral. The thousands of bricklayers and labourers do a kind of work that the Swiss hardly care to undertake.

Political Organization.

The Constitution that regulates the federal government dates from 1874, when it was voted by the people on the 29th of May of that year.

Every citizen of a canton is a citizen of Switzerland.

All citizens are equal before the law.

The management of the army is placed in the hands of the general government.

Every Swiss citizen is a member of the army.

The training, clothing, and arming of the troops is the business of the general government.

Pensions will be allowed to the families of soldiers killed or wounded in the line of duty.

No military capitulation will be allowed.

The government shall regulate the management and building of railroads.

The post and telegraph management belongs exclusively to the general government.

The government has the right to found and support universities.

Primary schools shall be free and their attendance compulsory and shall be supported by the cantons themselves.

In the public schools no restrictions shall be placed upon the freedom of faith and religion.

On the list of tariffs, articles of luxury shall be taxed the highest.

The manufacture of salt and gunpowder is a monopoly of the government.

The general government has the right to regulate the time of labour in manufactories, and to determine the age at which children may be employed in the same.

No member of the government, or legislature, is permitted to accept money, presents, or titles from foreign governments.

Liberty of faith and conscience is guaranteed—but the Order of Jesuits, and all orders affiliated with them, are suppressed, and their connection with church and schools forbidden.

All orders, or societies, which may be considered dangerous to the State may at any time be suppressed.

The freedom of the Press is guaranteed, but the general council has the right to prevent and punish its misuse.

Citizens have the right to organize societies, so far as they are not dangerous to the State.

Spiritual courts are abolished.

Capital punishment and arrest for debt are abolished.

The government has the right to expel strangers, who endanger its security, from its territory.

Trial by jury is continued.

Judges of the supreme court must be elected, and must be chosen from among the members of the legislative body.

In the Legislature an absolute majority of votes determines.

Laws passed by the Federal Assembly must be submitted to the popular vote, should 30,000 voters or eight cantons demand it.

Cantons have the right to propose laws to the Assembly by correspondence.

SWISS HOUSES OF PARLIAMENT

Members of the Lower House in the legislature are elected by the people direct. The members of the Upper House may be chosen direct or by the cantonal legislature.

The Upper House is composed of two members from each State ; the Lower House of one representative to every 20,000 souls.

The Bundesrath, or Cabinet, consists of seven members, chosen by the Upper House, for a term of three years.

The country is divided into forty-nine constituencies, each electing from one to nine deputies.

There are a Lower and an Upper House ; the former called the National-Rath, or National Council ; the latter, Ständerath, or Council of the States. Each canton sends two deputies to the Upper House, and every twenty thousand souls can have one deputy to represent them in the lower branch.

These Councils meet once a year at Berne, and there elect the nation's President, who serves a twelvemonth only. The Cabinet, or Federal Council, Federal Judges, Attorney-General, and Commander of the troops, are each elected by the Legislative power. Three years is fixed as term of office for members of the two Houses ; the Cabinet, or Council, serves for the same period.

The National Assembly votes the budget, sanctions all expenditure, all international treaties, appoints the members of the government and General-in-Chief in time of war.

All members of the government are paid ; their salaries, though, are merely nominal. The President receives but ten thousand francs, about, a year ; while Senators have only half as much.

No man can be elected President for two successive terms ; for the Vice-President, the same good rule is law. The members of the Upper House are paid by the cantons which they represent. The members of the other House, the President and the Council, Judges and General, have their compensation, a very small one, from government ; and every

man of them is held to strict account for each official step he takes.

The legislature sits with open doors; a bare majority of votes prevails; and every canton can, by vote, propose new laws, or ask amendments of the old.

The expenses of the government are paid with the revenues from public property, as forests, etc.; from customs—post and telegraph receipts—interest on the war fund, and from the State monopoly of gunpowder and salt, military service, etc.

Generally speaking, new laws are elaborated by the federal government, spontaneously or at the suggestion of either of the Houses. Within a delay of ninety days of its passing, a petition of 30,000 voters can insist on the law being submitted to popular vote. From 1874 to 1906, twenty-eight Referendums have taken place; nineteen times the measure was rejected; nine times only was it accepted.

The projects for revising the Constitution are, by right, proposed by the people, on 50,000 signatures being collected.

There are seven ministries or departments: foreign (naturalizations, emigration), home-office; justice and police, war-office; finance and commerce, agriculture and industry, and lastly post, telegraph and telephone and railroads.

The budget is never submitted to the popular vote.

The gross wealth of the Confederation was 13 millions of francs in 1849, and 242 in 1910. The net wealth in 1849 was 9 millions and is 167 to-day. In 1910 the national debt—loans and administrative obligations—amounted to 121,801,026 francs.

The consolidated debt consisted in 1905 of the 1897 Federal Loan of 24,248,000 fr., reimbursable from 1906 to 1940, and another loan of 1903, of 70 millions, refundable from 1913 to 1952, all bearing interest at the rate of 3%. These include earlier loans at higher interest but converted later on.

It will be seen that the federal budget has fluctuated.

Within the last twelve years the Swiss budget has increased 50%. That of 1908 showed a deficit, and owing to the commercial crisis in 1909, a further falling off in the revenue was anticipated. This circumstance is attributed to a decrease in customs duties, estimated by parliament at 558,000 fr., but really showing the alarming falling off of 2,043,000 fr. for 1908 as compared with the previous fiscal year. True, in the budget of expenses a subsidy of 2½ millions to certain new railways was entered, without which the result would have shown a bonus of half-a-million francs.

The Swiss Government is not accustomed to borrow; its credit is good; but if cash were needed it would soon flow into its coffers.

It is characteristic of the country that the postal service is most liberally endowed and is the first in the world. There is no stint in expenditure. The post-office buildings are architectural palaces. The postal returns are all expended on the department and the improvement of the service. The net revenue of these services was 7,064,195 fr. in 1910.

A federal law, voted in 1892, compels commercial travellers to take out a licence. The benefits arising from this source, minus 4% for the cantons, goes to the federal exchequer. The profits from the monopoly of distilling alcohol are divided among the cantons proportionately with the number of inhabitants. It thus follows that the smaller cantons producing a greater proportion of alcohol, really get a lesser share of the general receipts. But in accepting this allowance, they are acting up to the national axiom: "One for all, and all for one."

The whole political system of the country is based on the commune. Every little cluster of Swiss people forms a commune. These communes resemble, to a small extent, the divisions known as townships. They resemble more, however, a chartered stock company, owning certain rights, privileges and capital. Every human being inside of a given commune is a stockholder there, and everyone of the proper age has a

voice in saying what disposition shall be made of the common property.

It is the communal system told of in the Bible, and is as old as the time of Abraham and the priests.

Most of these stock companies, or communes, own property in forests, rents, lands, and houses, and dividends are declared in the shape of free wood for winter, free books at school, free use of lands, and reduced taxation.

Some of these communes are rich, and in such it is difficult to become a citizen. The rights of citizenship (Bourgeoisie) when not inherited must be purchased. The price of purchase differs with the worldly condition of the commune.

Sometimes it is a thousand francs and more : sometimes the right cannot be had at any price. As far as an interest in the common property of the commune goes, the poor cannot be very badly off ; for, in case of absolute necessity, the commune is bound to support its members. If, for example, a poor man have more children than he can feed and clothe, the communal mayor will have them cared for at the common expense, and the farmer who will feed them at the lowest price will get the job.

These contracts of feeding the poor are set up at auction and the lowest bidder wins.

The poor man, like the rich, shares, of course, all the advantages the commune may derive from its rents, forests, and lands. If the income of the year is large, the taxes will be small, and some communes are enabled to live without raising any tax from their members at all. Even the taxes levied by the general government are in such cases paid from the common pocket of the commune.

The separate parts of these communes are citizens who vote, and each has some good right of voice, provided he has aught to offer or advise. As citizens make up communes, so cantons form the State. The cantons are the State—some twenty-five republics, great and small, allied for purposes of self-security. Each little State is sovereign in itself—itself an independent

power but little limited by reason of the Bund. Each has its plan of governing, peculiar to itself, but democratic all. Some have their parliaments and some have none. Some meet in palaces to make their laws; some meet in meadows and in fields. Some make their parliaments supreme in power, some give their parliaments no power at all.

Unique among the cantonal governments are Uri, Unterwalden and the Appenzells. Time was, the fables say, when men met in the open fields, and chose the tallest of their number as their chief—the quality of height being thought sufficient proof of good ability to rule. Time is, and that to-day, when purely democratic men meet in the open fields and, in a single day, make laws, determine suits, and oil the whole political machine. These are the Landsgemeinde.

On May-Day the thing was done just as it has been done a thousand times before, in Canton Uri, in a corner of Lake Lucerne. At early morning all the people of the canton went to mass. The little chapels were each densely packed, and hundreds of the people who could not enter knelt, with bared heads, on the ground outside, and waited for the blessing and the prayer. At half-past ten, the official cortège left the town of Altorf, famous as the spot where Tell performed his archery, and moved out to a green meadow, half a mile away. First marched on foot two sergeants dressed in costumes of the ancient Swiss—then soldiers, with a military band. Next came six carriages, with members of the government—in every carriage were the colours and the canton's arms. Behind the carriages, in files of two and two, came shepherds, hunters, boatmen, mountaineers; in short, the voting population of the canton all were out, from every mountain, glade, and glen.

A platform elevated in the centre of the fields, served for the Council of the State—the people stood in groups about the scene. The Landamman arose, and, in few brief words, bade welcome to his sovereign friends, and asked that all should join in prayer. This service done the Landamman

again arose, addressed the people on the leading topics of the canton and the day, and stated what the business of the gathering should be.

The Secretary of the State then read a bill proposing some reforms of law. Supporters of the bill spoke earnestly, explaining every clause and urging its adoption. Opponents spoke as usual, had many reasons why the bill should not become a law. The sovereign people vote: "Raise hands, who wish to have the bill for law." The hands are up. The Landamman counts; "Hands down." "The noes—Hands up." He counts again: "More ayes than noes," and so the bill, in half an hour's time, is made the law. Then other propositions—other bills are voted up, are voted down, and, when the legislative work is done, or nearly done, the Landamman and all his officers resign their various trusts. New men are chosen for the coming year; the oath of office is administered, and then the Uri Parliament adjourns to meet a twelvemonth hence. The cavalcade returns to town—the flags and ancient armour for the thousandth time are locked in arsenals. The shepherd seeks his flock in glade and glen; the mountaineer goes to his distant home; the boatman paddles quietly away, and, in his mountain carols, each has half forgot, that here in Uri he is legislator, citizen and king.

As Uri does, so do the folk of Glarus, Unterwalden, Appenzell; the latter canton, however, makes a show and dress parade of peasantry that still exceeds in picturesqueness the rural parliament of Unterwalden and her neighbour Schwyz.

The Swiss are essentially a peasant folk, having much in common with the Boer. This fact explains their indignation at the time of the Transvaal war and sympathy with the Boers. It likewise serves to explain many of their characteristics.

Essentially practical, as may be supposed of an unimaginative people, the Swiss, notwithstanding a very few attempts of a few extremists, fight shy of such vain theories as collectivism, the socialization of land or industries. They are a

democratic people of a strong tincture. Moreover, there exists a strongly constituted agrarian party to counteract too revolutionary ideas, while the land is so subdivided that it is hardly remunerative.

Little Switzerland is wisely governed. Perhaps in the case of so critical a people, living within so limited a radius, misgovernment is a difficult matter. Apparently the great vice of jobbery, which is a stain on democracy, does not exist as regards the central administration. When, however, it comes to the cantonal governments, there may be some reasons for suspicion.

A wise measure of a paternal government in presence of the ravage caused by its consumption is the monopolisation of the manufacture of alcohol.

The question of raw alcohol presents itself twofold—for purely industrial use, on the one hand, and as a stimulant on the other, with all the social danger it entails. The monopolization of alcohol was a serious matter, tantamount to a spoliation of a flourishing branch of industry. According to the law of December 23, 1886, one quarter of the total consumption must be taken of local distillers. Local distilleries are placed under government control. The working of the law is similar to the system extant in other countries, where the fabrication of alcohol is a government monopoly. The profits derived from the privilege are equally shared among the twenty-two cantons. In 1910 they amounted to 9,644,451 francs.

One clause for regulating this gift to the cantons is that 10% of the sum must be devoted, as each one's share, towards combatting inebriety in all its forms.

Among the institutions thus subsidized are the lunatic asylums, asylums for epileptics, the deaf and dumb, public assistance, school-kitchens, outings for destitute children, and all other friendly societies.

In this struggle against the deadly effects of alcoholism on the race, it is well to mention the final abolition of the sale

of absinthe, so generally partaken of in the French-speaking cantons. The new measure will be enacted this year.

I have dealt with the political organization of the cantons. A few words may be added as to their financial resources.

As stated, each canton enjoys sovereign rights in all domains stipulated by the Constitution. This principle applies to taxation, and the restrictions are few. As may be imagined, the methods of taxation vary according to the class of the inhabitants and the resources of the cantons. While the federal government's resources are derived from customs and indirect taxation, the cantons resort to direct taxation; in other words, a tax on capital or on income, and in many cases on both together.

The advantage of this method of personal taxation resides in the fact that its effect is localized. Each canton making its own laws is better able to adapt them to the locality. All cantons tax capital, in the shape of unearned increment. So far as property outside of Switzerland is concerned the majority of cantons allow it to go scot free of taxation. Tools and implements and, in many cases, cattle are exonerated. Allowance is made in event of debts, except as regards mortgages.

Taxation.

Nineteen of the cantons tax both capital and income. In this case, only income from labour, stocks or pensions are taxed in the second degree. Incomes above a certain figure, when more than required for a living, are taxed only. In a general way widows, aged people, the impotent and orphans are exempt from income-tax. The right of taxation belongs to the native canton of a taxpayer, notwithstanding that he may have emigrated to and settled in another part of the country.

Foreigners, in most cantons, when not engaged in business or without a profession, are not subject to income-tax.

Many methods in view of preventing fraud are employed. One of the best is the inventory after death enabling the

State-comptroller to see whether taxes have been regularly paid.

In a general way, it is an easy thing to approximate a man's fortune and income in Switzerland.

Other direct taxes are death duties, on a sliding scale, particularly heavy in the case of distant heirs; on legal documents, on naturalizations, and permits of residence.

Taking Geneva as an example, foreign visitors settling here and not intending to go into business are exonerated from payments of the cantonal income-tax. They have to take out a permit of residence which costs about 5s. once and for all.

Other cantonal taxes are a tax on the rental, averaging at 1 franc in the 100 francs per person and is still reduced in the event of children in the family, then the income-tax, on a sliding scale, from which foreigners having no occupation are exempted; a ground-rent tax; the hospital-tax (payable by residents) is variable, about 2s. Servants are taxed from 4 francs upwards; saddle-horses, carriage-horses, from 12 francs upwards, automobiles likewise; bicycles 5 francs and dogs 12 francs.

The municipal authorities collect an income-tax.

A better idea of the cost of taxation in various cities will be obtained from the comparative table herewith, taken from Max de Cérenville's work on taxation in Switzerland. Taking for basis a capital of £4,000 realizing an income of £160 a year, the taxation on this income would be—

	Municipal Taxes	*Cantonal Taxes*	*Total*
St. Gall	650 fr.	320 fr.	970 fr.
Zurich	600	252	852
Bellinzona (Tessin)	355 50	300	655 50
Lucerne	450	75	525
Aarau	431 25	69	500 25
Fribourg	210	250	460
Neuchâtel	250	180	430
Lausanne (Vaud)	220	195	415
Berne	195	195	390
Schaffhausen	285	102 90	387 90
Bâle	42	157 50	199 50
Geneva	24	160	184

Neuchâtel raised in 1902 at the rate of fr. 7·50 a ton, a tax of 187,500 fr. from its asphalt mine. Very little mining is done in the country, however.

Politics are generally local, owing to the autonomous condition of the canton. Any great struggle over some vital question is fought out over the Referendum or popular plebiscite. Indeed, when an appeal to the country is made, the question at issue is generally economical and not political. The aristocracy, generally the old ultra-Catholics, play no longer any rôle in the country ; the last vestiges having anything to say, are those left in the Catholic cantons of Fribourg, Lucerne and Valais. In other cantons the Conservatives, as elsewhere, represent the élite ; and their ranks are being continually filled up by the advent of members of other parties as they grow rich. But the rising tide of strugglers naturally keeps the packs of wolves, as the Radicals and Socialists are called, *au complet.* The character of the National Assembly rarely varies. The party in the majority are the Radicals, who represent the opinion of the country.

The Referendum.

The peculiar geographical situation of the country and the necessity of being constantly on the *qui-vive* are a check against all extreme measures or deadly quarrels. After all, the cult of the fatherland is the one predominating thought. Only on one occasion was it necessary to send the federal troops to a canton, that of Ticino, to put down a revolution. If, as happens at times, there is a conflict of opinion between the federal government and the cantonal governments, owing to obstinacy on the part of the latter, the Council stops its allowances of subsidies for local needs, and this measure generally succeeds in bringing the recalcitrants to their senses. The independent character of each canton allows full scope for political squabbles, which, unfortunately, take up too much of the time of the men. The Referendum is a democratic measure that cuts two ways. One can have too much of it. The people are always up in arms and in a constant state of

ferment over some trivial question. Legislation is sometimes impossible. The communal and cantonal Referendums are of German-Swiss forging, and the French-speaking cantons leave to their confederates the option of enforcing them.

It is generally new taxation that starts local opposition and the question is fought out at the ballot-box, because every new law must, if the people will it, be passed by popular vote, *Vox populi*.....

Laws regulating the sale of liquor, hours of closing, and at times the advisability of tolerating certain licensed houses of prostitution, rouse public opinion, and after a fierce discussion in the party papers of the canton, provided the necessary number of votes demanding the Referendum be obtained, the electorate go to the poll. Thus, the cantons are in a constant state of effervescence. In a general way, when the vote is taken the attendance at the poll does not represent 25 per cent. of the electorate.

We have referred to the working of that essentially Swiss political institution, the Referendum, and we now have the opportunity of studying the operation of the corollary to the Referendum, the Initiative. By the one institution the people have the power of demanding to be heard by popular vote before a contentious measure, originated by the government, becomes law ; the other gives them the power to enact, by a plebiscite, a statute that in their opinion is necessary and which the governing bodies neglect or refuse to place upon the statute-book. Thus the people can not only control the action of their cantonal and federal governments, they can supplement it by their own initiative. All that is required to set this machinery in motion is a demand, backed by a sufficient number of signatures, that the proposed law be submitted to popular vote.

A system of Proportional Representation, which has often been discussed in England and America, has frequently been put forward as a palliative against majorities of one party or another. It will be remembered that some years ago an

abortive attempt was made in this direction by the establishment of what was known as "three-cornered constituencies" in England, but the proportional system, already in use in many parts of Switzerland for local elections, is far more scientific, securing as it does to each party approximately the number of members represented by the proportion of votes cast by that party. Thus, if there are eight members to be elected, any party or group casting one-eighth of the total votes is entitled to have its most successful candidate declared elected, even though he may stand lower than eighth on the list. In a country where parties are divided by religious as well as by political divergences, this principle, well carried out, becomes an important constitutional safeguard of the rights of the minorities. Ten out of the twenty cantons have adopted proportional representation.

By the way, a new general code of laws, accepted by popular vote, is applicable in three years' time to all cantons alike, thus doing away with many of the anomalies arising from separate cantonal legislation. It is a general saying: Twenty-two cantons, twenty-two different States.

As stated, the remarkable characteristics of Swiss political life is the final appeal to the people. Theoretically, it is a grand conquest. Apart from this fact, politicians are the same as elsewhere.

The Politician in Switzerland.

A man is a born politician; very rarely is he made that way. He must be by nature ambitious, fond of exercising power. Once started on the career, he must forego all other professions. The constant battle, then the consequent ingratitude of his followers, make the politician a selfish and unscrupulous man.

Many of these men, if they start with noble ideas and conceptions very soon say good-bye to all illusions, and seeing the gaping abyss of neglect, of oblivion yawning at their feet, throw scruples to the winds, proceed to feather their nests, and confound duty with personal prosperity.

All the cantons have their political men of this calibre, who occupy the principal electoral functions. They are capable men. Generally speaking, lawyers and medical men, which callings seem to be the probationary careers everywhere. These are men of merit, of experience, enjoying the favour of public opinion, and who move up to Berne, the political capital. Their names constantly recur in the debates, in the formation of the new ministries, and often as the yearly President of the Confederation.

The professional political office-holder is easily recognizable. He is a heavily-built man, with a large corporation, the result of innumerable banquets. He is ever ready with a *coup de chapeau* (a raising of the hat) which, abroad, is the small change of popular vote-seeking. *Bon enfant* he must be, because this condition is *sine quâ non* to popularity with the people, once their natural distrust is overcome and their vote obtained.

As concerns office-holders, time was when these offices were honorary. Magistrates and functionaries intend being paid for their services now. All those at the Federal Palace (government offices) are fairly well remunerated, whereas the pay by the cantons is of a more modest character. At Neuchâtel, the members of the government receive 8,000 fr. a year each. At Geneva, the people refused an increase over 5,000 fr. a year to the seven members of their government.

The Radical party is the most influential. Its platform includes among other desiderata—

Insurance by the State against accidents; compulsory insurance against illness (with the financial assistance of the State); old-age insurance and insurance against incapacity to work.

Reform in military instruction, the hardest part to be done at the outset of the term of service. Necessitous families, deprived of support, owing to military service of its members, to be supported by the community.

New reforms in the legislation regulating protection during work-time.

Legislation regarding charity and new intercantonal and international regulations.

Measures intended to provide against unemployment and to provide help in such an event.

Reform of the system of subsidies.

Administration reform. The proposal to have the seven members of the government elected by popular vote is held over.

A number of other reforms are included in the programme. Enough has been said to show that Switzerland, the most democratic country in Europe, intends to extend popular reform to the utmost limit.

The federal government has been compelled to adopt more stringent measures regulating the right of asylum of refugees. This hospitality is a standing reproach against Switzerland by certain autocratic powers.

The right of asylum was another halo of glory to Helvetia while it was a question of such patriots as Kossuth, Klapka, Patek, etc. But with the advent of a low class of assassins, such as Luccheni, who killed the Empress of Austria, and the tribes of Nihilists, hospitality is no longer anything glorious.

The Alien Question.

Then came the subversive newspapers, glorifying the assassination of King Umberto and President Carnot, and when this subject was exhausted the editors preached anarchy and arson, and desertion from the Army.

The federal government had voted by the Chambers a measure enacting that anyone who, with malicious intent, publicly advocates or makes the apology of a criminal act or anarchist propaganda, will be punished by the laws of the country.

The revolution in Russia suddenly swelled the ranks of revolutionary exiles, hundreds of poor folk resorting to Geneva, Berne, and Zurich ostensibly for the purpose of University training, but in many cases merely to study the making of explosives.

Secret societies held their confabulations; all sorts of anarchical plots, including the murder of prominent Russian statesmen, were hatched, the threads of all these conspiracies being held in Switzerland. In the wake of the refugees and plotters came the spies and secret informers. One or two of the latter having been found out were mysteriously assassinated.

Geneva had an important colony of Young Turks, who, it may be stated, never gave cause for any complaint.

A terrible outcry was raised in 1908 because a Russian political assassin, Wasieleff, on the decision of the Federal Court at Lausanne, by a majority of one vote, was given up to Russia. The Tribunal urged that his crime was one of common law and not political. The Socialists and Radicals carried on a bitter campaign in the Press and at public meetings, denouncing this violation of the rights of refugees to hospitality, and this alleged breach of the law regulating the right of asylum. For a land symbolizing freedom in all its purest ideals to act as a gendarme and hand over a man to a despotic ruler was an outrage on the sentiments of the people, so they declared. However, the majority of the population were not sorry to be rid of such an undesirable guest.

Arbitration.

Before the foundation of the Arbitral Tribunal at the Hague foreign powers were wont to resort to Swiss arbitration, owing to the able jurists, well up in the international law of the country, and also because of their supposed high-minded sense of equity, in order to settle their little difficulties.

It is related that in 1902 the Federal Tribunal at Berne was called upon to arbitrate between France and Brazil, apropos of territory in Guiana, the possession of which was a matter of contest between the two powers since the settling of Europeans in that country.

The French Government, instead of settling the matter at once with Brazil, by agreeing to its claims with good grace in exchange for some slight favours in regard to duties on French goods, preferred to abide by the decision of the Berne

Tribunal, which decided in favour of Brazil, meanwhile obtaining a favourable treaty with that country for the importation of Swiss goods.

After this sort of thing had been going on for a long time, the editor of a London daily sarcastically remarked that the rôle of international arbitrator was worth more than a navy to Switzerland.

This reference to a navy reminds me of the old-standing joke about the "Swiss Admiral." Switzerland has its fleet of splendid pleasure steamers plying upon its lakes, but thus far to my knowledge the example of Italy, which runs torpedo-boats on its lakes so as to give chase to the bands of smugglers, has not been imitated yet in this country.

"The Swiss Admiral."

As for the Swiss Admiral, he is no myth. He did exist, and what is more he was an Englishman. He, however, was not a naval man. His name was Williams, colonel, in 1799, in the service of Zurich, and he commandeered a small fleet on Lake Zurich, having orders to oppose the French army. Unfortunately for the allied armies of Austria and Russia, when the French, under the command of Masséna, completely routed them, on September 25th and 26th, Admiral Williams calmly watched the battle raging on land. Then, enraged with himself at his own inaction, he discharged his crews, scuttled his vessels . . . and took to flight. This was the end of the navy that Zurich had kept up on its lake since the sixteenth century.

The Swiss Admiral now belongs to history and no longer to the realms of the operatic stage.

CHAPTER II

TYPES OF LIFE

In the many changes of the day, the old mountain villages of Switzerland, at least, remain, and nothing is more peculiar to, or characteristic of, the country than they. Wooden towns, centuries of age, standing on the green, grassy slopes of mountain sides, or nestling close up in little vales and glens, they give us back our heart's idea of Switzerland.

Alpine Villages.

These Alpine towns, villages, and hamlets, represent a rural simplicity of life not found elsewhere in the world. The houses of these little towns are old, and the people who live in the houses are old; old in their ways, at least, and often very old in years. It is no uncommon thing to find in villages among the Alps, men, almost a century old, living in the house where they were born and where their fathers, their grandfathers, and their great-grandfathers were born, and where they lived and died. Who built the old houses and the old villages, the oldest inhabitant can hardly tell. He knows only that his ancestors lived in these same snuff-coloured huts, since a time whence the memory of man "runneth not to the contrary." The tourist who hurries through the country by rail and steamer, or who rests for awhile in the great hotels of the larger, well-known towns, sees little or nothing of the characteristic places of Switzerland. The towns he sees are almost modern towns. The houses have a modern air and way that is no longer Swiss. The city's walls are down, the ditches filled, and the turnpike yields to the locomotive's rush and scream. It is like looking at a battlefield instead of seeing the fight itself—and the tourist who has not left the highways, built by modern commerce, has not seen Switzerland.

As is usual in Swiss towns, the two principal houses here are the country inn and the white stone church. There is no street. The country road leads past, not through, the groups of a dozen or so brown houses, scattered around upon the green grass. The houses are two, or two and a half stories in height, with low ceilings, lined with pine. They are built of small pine or hemlock logs, dressed smooth and square, laid close, and dovetailed together at the corners, the projecting ends being often carved. The clapboard or shingle roof is kept in place by heavy stones and projects from four to eight feet beyond the walls of the house, which are sometimes covered with little round-ended shingles, a couple of inches broad. Some of the houses have roofs shingled a dozen layers thick, for what purpose it were hard to guess. The ends of the rafters projecting beyond the walls are also dressed and sometimes carved. The windows, though very many in number, are very small in size. The surroundings of the village are sloping meadows, high mountains, steep waterfalls, a fair, blue lake, grazing goats, and half-contented poverty. The summer, always short, is spent in cultivating a few potatoes, herding the goats, pressing the cheese, and cutting and carrying in the grass. The winter, always long, is spent in eating up the little that the summer gave, and in a struggle to keep from freezing. Here, as elsewhere in the country, both sexes work in the open air, and, notwithstanding their scanty rations and the wine, live long and heartily. The wonderful climate braces the constitution, whereas under different circumstances it could not resist the regime. What proper diet and proper work might do for mortals, in a place like this, would puzzle all the sons of Æsculapius to think. Men would not die at all, perhaps; but, when ripe and full of many years, would silently step away from the mountains and into the clouds that are said to veil the gates of heaven.

To save the trouble and expense of each one herding his own goats during the summer, a single shepherd is employed who leads the whole drove into the higher Alps every morning

Photo by *Wehrli*

A STREET IN BRIENZ

and down to the huts at night. When the flock comes down at evening, each goat seeks out its own familiar hut and enters, to be milked and stalled till morning. When winter comes, the goats, with their increase, are returned to their respective owners, and the huts remain empty until the grass appears on the upper mountains in the spring.

The Appenzellers.

About the pleasantest country villages are in the land of the Appenzellers. The houses are grouped about on the green fields of grass, but they are larger in size, and much handsomer in appearance, than in many other parts. When not left to be coloured and toned by time, they are painted a dazzling white that contrasts strikingly with the green grass and the climbing vines about them. Their very size gives them an appearance of real farm comfort, and their many, many windows, when lighted by the morning sun, make them seem like giant greenhouses or glass villas.

The Appenzeller's house, inside, is cleanliness itself. Paint and varnish are seldom used, but the plain benches, tables and chairs, made of the whitest wood, are so fairly scraped, scoured, washed, and polished, that to paint them would be to defile them. But all this cleanliness and all these numberless windows are necessities to an Appenzeller's home from the very character of the work conducted there. The women of the house are said to earn the family living and do it at the needle's point, for the peasants of Appenzell and St. Gall are long famous for the beautiful embroideries that supply so many markets of the world on both sides of the sea.

The husband, in many of these peasant homes, is not the one who earns the bread. His life is one of comparative ease. He drives the goats, he mows a little hay, and wanders about as guide to tourists in the summer time. In the winter he bakes himself upon the porcelain stove, or, with his lazy chums, lounges about the house, tells sailors' yarns, and smokes and puffs the long days and the long evenings through; while the female members of the house stitch, stitch

continually before the electric lamp that casts its concentrated rays upon the pattern and the gliding thread.

The mountainous character of the country limits agricultural pursuits. The fertile lands cover about 75 per cent. of the entire area, another 20 per cent. being covered with woods and forests.

Of arable land there remains, then, but a limited area. Two-fifths of the population are engaged in various branches of agriculture. Small holdings are the rule. Canton Vaud boasts the largest landowners. The extent of cultivation in the higher altitudes, as well as the lack of water in certain valleys, has led to several ingenious devices being applied, such as the *bisses* or conducts in Canton Valais. The water from melting snow is brought from an altitude of 6,000 feet. Seventeen of these canals exist between Brigue and Martigny, measuring together 4,500 feet in length, and having cost over six millions of francs.

The water thus obtained is used for the fields, particularly those exposed to the sun. By this means arid soil is fertilized, enabling the cultivation of vines and pastures in the Alpine valleys.

Agrarian Switzerland.

Agrarian Switzerland has few of the advantages that favour flat countries. The culture of the vine has been mentioned. The raising of cattle is the most appropriate pursuit in the mountainous parts, and this pursuit disperses the population over a large area. Cattle-breeding is carried on in the highest altitudes. Some little settlements are away out of the world. The case is quoted of the mountaineers of Cresta-Avers,[1] altogether a sedentary colony, living in the highest regions (6,000 feet above sea-level), so cut off from the outer world, that until a recent road was made from Cresta to Andeer, the Avners, as they are called, owned neither horse nor mule, and drove their cattle to Italy, there to sell it. In the summer the grass is cut by Italian labourers, who come for the purpose. Other

[1] *La Vallée d'Avers*, F. Roget.

Photo by *Wehrli*

STREET IN THUN

agricultural pursuits are out of the question. In autumn the meat is dealt out in quarters, well salted and smoked during a few days only, then hung up to the roof-tree ; in the spring it is literally cooked through the action of the pure air. For the winter keep of their pigs these peasants cut wild herbs, rhubarb, nettles, which after boiling are dried, and then cut in slices according to need. The most primitive methods are employed to provide combustibles for the winter. Life under such conditions hardly conduces to an increase in the community, so that the surplus is compelled to emigrate. Curiously enough, the same colony is to be found, in an almost tropical climate, in New Mexico.

The lot of the mountain peasantry is not an enviable one. Those of the valleys and plains are not hard workers. This happens to be the opinion of all close observers of life in the country. Mrs. Delmard,[1] nearly half a century ago, writing on the subject of the prematurely aged appearance of the peasant folk, said that it is not hard labour certainly that ages them, for never was man or woman in Vaud (at Bex) and in the Valais who was what an English labourer would call very hard at work. They work a little and rest a good deal, a remark that applies to all kinds and classes of artisans and labourers. Sustained labour is, indeed, not necessary, for the soil, being constantly renewed by alluvial deposits, is so rich that it requires but little working, and the sunshine quickens with life and ripens with a rapidity short of the marvellous, the seeds and plants placed therein, and as the majority are tilling their own plots, which are seldom of any great size, there is always " time enough to spare," so that they have no need to hurry themselves.

Half the peasant's time in the fields is spent, while chewing the inevitable stump of a Grandson cigar, in looking about him, nursing his children—for as a man always takes his wife (because he fears she would not have her full share of the hard work if she remained at home) it necessarily follows that the

[1] *Village Life* (1860).

children, when not old enough to go to school, must go too—chatting with his neighbours, lolling lazily under some tree, or, what is worse, imbibing deep draughts of nerve-wrecking white wine, which, in the end, renders him half a *crétin*.

Preparing the vineyards in spring is the hardest work of the whole year, yet that labour is not more arduous than the cultivation of a garden, and is soon over, because here, unlike France, they are rarely of any great size; and as to the tying-up and cutting they require afterwards, an English gentleman performs for pleasure quite as laborious an occupation on his espaliers and wall-fruit trees.

However, in all fairness it must be admitted that everyone seems happy and contented, and no one has to beg.

These peasants have a share in the surplus revenues of the commune at the close of every year, besides the right to send a cow to pasture for so long as he likes on the public lands, and a share in the wood, of which quantities are felled every year from the communal forests. These rights belong to the rich and poor alike, but the former usually waive their claims in order that the poor may have more, and as they are sure of these helps, in addition to what little else they may possess, "they prefer a dinner of herbs" and idleness "to a stalled ox" and industry.

There is republican liberty—liberty to live at ease. The spirit is imbibed from early youth. After leaving school, the only intellectual recreation the *jeunesse* appear to indulge in is the reading of the local papers, full of cantonal squabbles, in their cafés and beer-houses.

The Switzers seem to spend their time holiday-making. Beyond the calendar fêtes, all closely observed, there are a dozen and one excuses for a jollification—

Holidays.

shooting festivals (federal and cantonal), *Jeûnes* (do., do.), otherwise thanksgiving days, gymnastic fêtes, which involve a continual coming and going between the cantons; excursions of musical societies, bands of music, etc., to Spain, Belgium, France, Italy, of

frequent occurrence. The trains are made up of the families and friends of the executants, and a jolly time they have, marching through the streets with banners flying.

Christmas is greatly fêted. Everyone has his tree and a raffle ; even the Freethinkers must have their own. Fêtes of all kinds are being continually promoted and urgent appeals made for subscriptions.

The consequence of this life, particularly in the villages, is a relaxation of morals. Public balls in cafés, prolonged to break of day, without any supervision of parents, accompanied by continual drinking among the male sex ; mountain excursions, each lass with a lad, from which they seldom return till past midnight ; long evening rambles in this seductive clime, that are kept up so long as the summer lasts ; scores of young girls, singly or in parties, turning out of the village after sunset, meet with an equal number of swains, and wander up and down the mountains, screaming, romping, shouting, and dancing, till late in the night. The young men pay surreptitious visits to the fair ones by placing a ladder to the window. In the German-Switzerland this secret courting is termed *fensterlen.*

Mrs. Delmard is responsible for the assertion that " there was hardly a girl in the place who had not had a child, or a married woman who had not been *enceinte* before being led to the altar."

German-Swiss women tell me this is so. But I must ascribe these assertions to the severe way many women have of judging their own sex.

The most important event of the year is the *Fête du Mi-Eté,* or midsummer. This festival is not celebrated in the valleys but high up on the pasturages where cows and goats have been grazing since the opening of the *belle saison.* It serves the double purpose of a holiday, and of examining into the yield of their cows and goats by the peasants, and lasts a day and a night, as they go up on Saturday afternoon and return at sundown on Sunday.

There is a particular sort of bread appropriate to the occasion, made of dough mixed with butter, sugar, and aniseeds, and baked in the shape of crowns, rings, and other devices.

The peasants take no other eatables with them: cream, milk, butter, and cheese being supplied at the chalets. Scores of families, some numbering as many as five generations, climb the mountain-paths that day.

You come upon these pasturages as if by surprise, after passing through a small wood of firs. The watch-dogs begin to bark and the whole herd of cows start off roaring and bellowing, a formidable array of two hundred animals, among them several bulls. The shepherds come to the rescue of the party. More than a hundred people are assembled on these occasions. The married women are seated on the grass, chatting and looking on at the sports, while their lords and masters smoke and sleep. Children are playing as children will play, tumbling about, or wading across the stream minus shoes and stockings. The elder lads and lasses indulge in their whistling dance. The musician is generally an old fiddler or piper, seated in an impromptu tribune bowered in pine branches and flowers, and surmounted by the Swiss flag.

The shepherds take you to the *Sennerei*, and filling two wooden bowls, one with milk and the other with cream, while handing you an oval ladle, assure you you are welcome to as much as you like. This, together with the sweet bread to eat with it, is an agreeable and appropriate fare. To while away the time the boys and girls go in search of flowers and strawberries.

Then the goats are gathered together in flocks, and to the accompaniment of their tinkling bells the descent is made, the young people being all eagerness to assist the *chevrier* in driving his flock.

Some pretty and interesting customs attach to various " Alpages " or mountain pastures in the different Swiss valleys,

Photo by · · · *Wehrli*

OLD HOUSES, WASSEN

usually taking the form of distribution of the products. Such a custom exists near Ollon, in the Canton Vaud, where a member of one of the old families of the country left three chalets with their pastures under the condition that the poorer inhabitants of the district should have the privilege every year of sharing in the distribution of the milk, butter, and cheese produced at those chalets. Those desirous of claiming their portion ascend the mountain on the 14th of August in order to arrive early in the morning of the 15th, and the more numerous the family the more they secure to take back with them to their homes. Sometimes, it is said, over 200 persons attend the distribution, but among these are many who go merely through curiosity to see the sight.

Alpages.

In the description of the valley of Tourtemagne, in the Valais, given in "L'Europe Illustré," there is an account of a similar ceremony at the Alpage of Blummatt, which originated with a vow made at a time when the cattle was in danger of being carried off by an epidemic. Here also a distribution of the products of the Alpage is made to all the poor persons of the district who go there to claim it. No doubt, there are various other places where the same custom prevails. In the Val d'Anniviers the Curé of Vissoye receives, in return for his benediction of the various Alpages, a cheese made from the milk given by the cows on the third day of their stay on the high pastures. These cheeses are carried to the church on the second or third Sunday in September, and formally presented before the altar, after which they are taken to the curé's cellar and the bearers regaled with meat and wine. A stock of cheese, it must be remembered, constitutes one of the main outward and visible signs of wealth in this valley, and the result of a life of saving consists in an array of well-stocked cellar-shelves. The customs of the Val d'Anniviers as described, for instance, in Victor Tissot's "Unknown Switzerland," are interesting in the highest degree for their patriarchal simplicity and their perfect adaptation to a life

extremely laborious and frugal, and for which, although we may not desire to imitate it, we cannot but feel the highest respect.

The immense quantity of cattle and goats that go up the mountains and the importance of the milk and cheese industry render the Alpage one of the most beautiful features of Swiss life, certainly the one that interests the stranger the most. There is something patriarchal about these pastoral pursuits. Those who have not ventured into the higher regions have cast a glance up the green slopes of the lofty mountains that culminate in rocks and crags. On the green fields that are separated by pine woods are seen the chalets, while the cows may be observed grazing.

During the winter the cattle are kept carefully housed in stables, which as a rule adjoin the dwellings of their owners.

The Alp-drives.

In the spring—usually towards the end of May—begins what is known as the Alp-drive. This consists in a general and gradual movement of the cattle of the canton from the valleys into the Alp-pastures. The lower or fore-Alp pastures are first resorted to, and later on those of a higher elevation, from six to eight weeks being consumed in the entire movement. The herdsmen who conduct the drive are sometimes the owners of the herds and sometimes only in the service of the owners. All are called *Sennen* (or Armaillis); strictly speaking, the word *Sennen* signifies herdsmen who own a sentum, that is to say, who own twenty-four cows and a bull. One of the old alternate names for a *Gau* or country was *Send,* and it is supposed by some that by a not unnatural verbal process a ruler of herds came to be called a Send ruler, or Senn.

The Alp-drive is conducted with much regard to picturesque effect. The herds are assembled in long procession, each preceded by a herdsman and a flock of goats. The herdsman wears a white shirt with sleeves rolled up to the elbows, a pair of broad leather suspenders decorated with figures of cows

and goats shaped from bright metal, a scarlet waistcoat, knee trousers of yellow cloth, white stockings, low shoes, a small round black hat of felt or leather bound with a wreath of artificial roses, and one long brass earring, consisting of a chain with a tiny milk-bowl attached. Following each of the herdsmen come three or more heifers, each wearing a bell as large as a water-pail suspended about the neck by a gay collar. Then come the main body of the cattle, with here and there a herd-boy to keep them in line. Each herd-file is closed by a waggon containing a great copper cheese-kettle and wooden utensils for milk and butter. By the side of this waggon usually walks (when present) the owner of the team. As the procession moves slowly along the road the great bells clang, clang, clang; the herdsmen repeat the cattle-call, and shout and yodel, and any stray cows there may be in adjacent meadows look up, frisk, curl their tails, and become absolutely wild with excitement. At the entrance to every inn which is passed people are gathered to witness the procession, and to smile approval on the landlord as (according to custom) he issues forth with decanter of wine and glasses to serve the herdsmen.

Arriving about July 1st in one of the higher Alps the Senn begins his summer life in earnest. He first inspects his surroundings. These, besides mountain-peaks and the blue heavens, consist of low stone huts covered by rude roofs of boards or shingles. The most commodious hut is selected by the Senn as the abode of himself and his helpers. It has one living-room and a milk-room. The only outside opening is the doorway, and the walls are black with the smoke of many former occupations. The copper kettle is placed in one corner; milk-table, pails and stools arranged conveniently; knives and spoons thrust into crevices in the walls; and at one side hay spread upon the floor for a couch. Wearied with his first day's labour, the Senn seeks repose early. The helpers milk the cows, put them in the stables, and follow their chief's example. The stars alone now keep watch upon

the Alps. But even before the stars have disappeared, a slowly increasing band of light is visible, the Senn is up. Suddenly the bell of a distant church rings out, and the herdsmen fall on their knees and tell a short prayer upon their rosaries.

Devotions ended, the cattle are liberated and allowed to graze. The Senn, meanwhile, sets himself vigorously to the task of cheese-making. He first skims the cream from the pails of milk in the milk-cellar, and putting the skimmed milk into the great kettle, heats it until it is lukewarm. He then curdles it with extract of fermented calf's stomach. When well curdled the milk is removed from the kettle, and the coagulated part, or caseine, is worked by the hand or by a paddle. After standing until the water is drained away, the cheese is placed in the cellar to await the coming of the dealer, who salts it and prepares it for the market. But it is only the poorer kinds of cheese which are made from skimmed milk. For the best kinds milk fresh from the cow is used. The milk, after the removal from it of the caseine, is called Molchen, and upon this, mixed with a little skimmed milk, the Sennen largely subsist. By the time the cheese-making is finished the sun is long up in the sky, and its heat is strong. The cattle are, therefore, driven back to their stables, and the Senn and herdsmen, having eaten their dinner, lie down for a nap. Towards evening, when the mountain air is again cool, the cattle are released, and the wood is collected and the water brought for the next day. Soon the shades gather in the valley, the sides of the hills grow roseate, the bell of the church rings its summons to prayer, and the day is gone.

Cheese-making.

In the way above described the herdsmen spend two or three months. Then autumn comes, and they form their herds in procession for return into the valleys. But the sadness of the season is upon them, and they move slowly, only now and then awakening the echoes of the mountains by a yodel or a shout.

The French-speaking cantons are celebrated for the wines they produce: Vaud, Neuchâtel, Geneva, as well as Valais. Schaffhausen is reputed for a light wine of a roseate tint. As every tourist is aware, the slopes of the hills from Lausanne to Montreux are covered with vineyards.

Grape Culture.

The vintage is naturally an all-important event. The days for commencing are separately fixed by the communes.

The Swiss custom in this regard is eminently practical: a day is agreed before, on which only those having no wine-press of their own are allowed to pick their grapes. These persons easily obtain the use of a larger proprietor's *pressoir*, having two days' start in which to get their vintage gathered and pressed. Were it not so, the people who have no press would have to wait until the owner of that indispensable apparatus was at liberty to attend to them.

How beautiful the vineyards look with the purple and white clusters. What charming contrasts between the blooming purple of the fruit and the fresh green leaves! Visitors who are invited by some *vigneron*, or owner of vineyard, are allowed to eat all the grapes they like. One's capacities increase with the occasion, and recollecting that *vendanges* are not held every day, you think you may as well have a few more while the opportunity offers. The inhabitants look forward to the vintage as a time when they shall get rid of their ailments; and numbers of strangers undergo the grape cure, a very simple process, which consists in eating a large quantity of grapes before breakfast, followed by a walk, the two producing an effect similar to Carlsbad or Vichy waters.

At noon a sort of lunch is taken on a grassy slope—a repast of bread, goat's-cheese, sausage, and wine. But no unnecessary lingering, the grapes must be cropped ere the sun sink behind the Savoy mountains, towards Geneva, and so they all set to work to fill the baskets, emptying them as soon as filled with the *brante* set upright in the path, against which

Vintage Customs.

stands a man who smashes the grapes with a large wooden mallet as they are poured in. When the *brante* is filled to a certain mark, it is lifted on his back, he passes his arms through the leathern straps that hold it in its place, and he descends with it into the valley below.

There is much shouting and screaming when a young fellow claims the fine every girl has to pay for leaving any grapes hanging on the vines from which she has been cropping. They rush and hide among the bushes if the pursuer be ill-favoured; how quietly and coquettishly, with only a little turning away of the head, the kiss is received, if he be not disagreeable to her.

The ordinary wine-press is made of wood clamped with iron. A screw in the centre permits the working of a perforated movable frame, under which are boards. The screw is worked by two men, according to the pressure required. Each lot of grapes is stirred up, and pressed three times; the juice, passing into the trough, runs thence through a hole with a large receptacle, which is again emptied into the casks, where it is allowed to ferment for ten days or a fortnight before it is closed, and in six weeks it is considered fit to drink. The white grapes are pressed as they are brought from the vine-yards, but the black are allowed to ferment for several days previous to the pressing, in order to improve the colour of the wine. From the residuum a common sort of brandy is stilled, called *eau-de-vie de marc.*

Much unnecessary drinking is indulged in in these wine countries. General invitations are extended to the cellars, sometimes a cavern in the mountain-side, where the guests are expected to drink as much as they can. The owner shows laudable pride in the variety and quality of his brews. All casks have their history and refer to dates of certain years of particularly good vintages. How they smack their lips over this *cru* and that other *cru!* Unfortunately, the cellar gatherings generally end in all parties getting so drunk that the topers remain lying about till they are sober again, often all

night, no one troubling themselves at all about them. In country-places the first excuse is taken in order to repair to the cellar, and often the affairs of the commune are discussed underground.

Mrs. Delmard relates the following anecdote: "On the occasion of a meeting of a local *conseil municipal*, consisting of twelve members and the Syndic, the subject to be brought before the meeting being one of more than ordinary interest, the council, Syndic *en tête*, resolved to inaugurate the occasion by paying a visit to the cellar of one of the members hard by. When there they commenced drinking wine, using the same glass, which travelled so fast round the circle and back again that at last all these dignitaries lay dead drunk on the ground."

After all, why be so hypercritical? Doubtless Hodge discusses parochial business in the village inn much in the same way.

A sort of *fête champêtre* winds up the *vendange* in certain rural districts. These people, so enamoured of lovely Nature amidst which they pass their existence, influenced by the autumn season, their work accomplished, the profits to come—why analyse the feelings of these simple folk? At all events, the vintage over, they have a rousing good time—not to lose the habit, might be added.

The site selected is one of the loveliest; beneath the spreading oak-trees and from every side you get the grand view of lake and mountains that never seems to pall upon these folks.

The preparations for the celebration are most elaborate. Fully a quarter of a mile of table-cloths is spread under the shade of the trees. The feast is a bountiful one, including, as it does, loaves of bread, hams, fowls, roast beef, large tarts, and wine *à discrétion*.

Sometimes a great wood fire is burning under one of the sustaining walls of the vineyard, at which women are roasting chestnuts, while others are arranging some bushels of grapes that are to do duty for dessert. The assembled guests number

600 at times, the occasion being a favourable one for organizing picnic parties in addition to the large one of the day.

After the feasting and toasting, the musicians engaged for the occasion " pipe a tune," which set the feet of all young people in motion. Conviviality is general, it being understood that all classes are to mix freely and dance together. French, Swiss, and Italian dames dance freely with the peasants.

Another important local harvest is made in most parts of Switzerland, that of the walnuts, cherries, and chestnuts. These fruits, extensively grown, are cultivated with a view to the preparation of two products for which the cantons are famous, walnut oil and cherry brandy. The first is a most delicious oil for salads, and visitors would do well to try it, and to take a supply away with them, giving the preference to that prepared by the grower. The brandy (*eau de cérises*) made from cherries grown in the cantons, is likewise of fine quality. Montreux cherries are also dried for winter use.

Woods and Forests.

In so mountainous a country the preservation of the wooded regions is the subject of careful consideration on the part of the Confederation. Certain universities have a chair of forestry.

A law, dated October 11th, 1902, upholds the principle that the present area of forests must not be diminished.

Injuries to forests are punishable, and among the acts defined as injuries are unnecessary cutting of branches, driving in new forests, setting fires near forest boundaries, and gathering wood, leaves, moss, or grass.

The expense incident to the education of foresters and to planting and renewing forests is borne in part by the Confederation, the rule as regards the last two items being that the federal authority is to pay from thirty to seventy per cent. of the cost of planting, and from twenty to fifty per cent. of the cost of renewing.

Water-control is also a matter of both federal and cantonal

Photo by *Frith*

GRYON IN WINTER

concern. By federal requirement there exists in the hands of the standing commission of each canton a special fund from which, by vote of the Great Council, persons can be aided who have suffered unavoidable loss by the ravages of mountain torrents.

Water-control.

Property-owners are compelled to erect and maintain such protective structures as the nature of their property may render necessary. But if the benefit resulting is one common to several owners, each must bear a portion of the cost. Moreover, should any owner be unable to bear the cost of a protective water-structure by which he only is benefited, the Great Council, upon the advice of the standing commission, can contribute a sum equal to twenty per cent. of it.

Highways in Switzerland are, as a rule, maintained by the cantons exclusively. Perhaps the earliest attempt at their control was made in the thirteenth century, when they were required to be of a width sufficient to allow two knights with lances resting across their saddles to pass one another. It was not until the time of the French Revolution that they assumed a definite character. Then the movements of armies over Swiss territory necessitated wide and firm roads, and many such were built.

Cantonal Regulations.

The canton bears one-third the cost of all new district roads, and in case districts are remiss in maintaining roads, performs the work itself and collects the cost from the district.

By virtue of this statute the whole of the cantons of Uri, Unterwalden, Glarus, Graubünden, Ticino, Valais, and Appenzell, together with the mountainous and wooded parts of several other cantons, are subject to the federal forestry regulations. The kinds of forests which these regulations recognize are—protection, cantonal community, and corporation ; protection forests being defined as those on high mountains, in spring-water regions, in narrow defiles, and such as are grown for climatic purposes and as a means of preventing avalanches. Each canton is required to elect a head forester

and two district foresters, and to supplement the federal regulations by rules adapted to its own special circumstances.

The head forester must be a graduate of the School of Forestry, and both he and the two district foresters are to be chosen by the Great Council. All forests are to be surveyed, and their character as protection or other fixed, under the supervision of the head forester and with the approval of the federal authority. Whenever the planting of a new forest is deemed necessary, the land for the purpose may be taken by the canton upon the payment of the full value to the owner. The cutting of wood and pasturing of cattle in forests, and the sale of corporation and community forest lands, are to take place only with the consent of the canton.

The cantonal forest services are subsidized by the State, and the creation of new forests as well as new roads and paths for the removal of cut wood, is a subject of constant consideration.

Switzerland is among the countries that import more wood than is exported. The trade done in wood is estimated at 50 million francs annually and represents 17 per cent. of the country's commerce. About 150,000 cubic metres are imported per annum, equivalent to a sum of 30 millions. Within the last twenty-four years the importation of wood has quadrupled, while exportation has gradually declined. Austria supplies the largest quantity to Switzerland.

We mentioned that there was a strong agrarian party in Switzerland, which is a set-off against the too revolutionary tendencies of the Socialist city-dwellers. Numerous professional associations are affiliated to the *Ligue des Paysans*. The Confederation has instituted a sort of agricultural department in the federal government. Numerous subsidies are granted to cantons, to agricultural schools, Alpine gardens, for the improvement of cattle, and to companies insuring against hail, or for combatting phylloxera, etc.

The behaviour of glaciers forms at all times a curious and interesting study, for apart from their regular forward

movement, there is a constant advance or retrocession of the lower end of the icy mass, caused by the more or less rapid melting of the foot of the glacier. The Swiss Alpine Club has had seventy-three glaciers under observation, and sixty-three of these are found to have receded during last year on account of the melting of the ice taking place more rapidly than the forward movement. The lower Aare glacier has gone back 25 metres, the Eiger glacier about 75 metres. In the case of certain remarkable examples, such as the Rhône glacier, the different limits of successive forward movements taking place many years ago can still be seen in the heaps of débris left by the melting ice.

Glaciers.

The recent bursting of a pocket in the Gorner glacier, and the emptying of the lake which every year forms on its surface, has given rise to some curious observations. As usual, the river rose during three days, after which it gradually diminished. The torrent brought down with it trunks of trees with the ends tremendously acted upon by the grinding to which they had been exposed and which must apparently have come from the interior of the glacier, which probably presents vast caverns left empty by the bursting out of the water. The formation of the lake is a curious scientific phenomenon ; the water that trickles over the rocks and falls on the glacier is warmed by the sun's heat and does not freeze ; it gradually percolates through the glacier and breaks a way out into the torrent of the Viège.

A curious phenomenon, physical in this instance, is the *goitre*, a growth like a balloon projecting from the neck, and is remarked in the Rhône valley and Veveysan district.

Goitreux.

In the examination as to the fitness of recruits, *goitre* is shown to be one of the principal reasons for exemption from military service. On the minds of all foreigners the sight of the victims to this disease leaves a most unpleasant impression. In certain parts of the Valais nearly every person seems to have a huge excrescence hanging from the neck.

Among all the theories advanced as to the cause of this evil, not one appears to be relied upon as the true one by medical men. The common belief among the people is, that it is produced by the glacier waters; yet this theory is controverted by the fact that those people living on the mountains nearest the source of the glacier torrents are less affected by it than others who live in the low, swampy valleys.

Another of nature's victims, a sort of degenerate, is the "crétin." The true, or beau, "crétin," as he is called, has no *goitre*, but is a stunted, deformed, loathsome spectacle, without intelligence, will, or speech.

Mrs. Delmard relates that the sight of these unhappy creatures is enough to strike the beholder with terror and dismay. Once, in the miserable villages lying in the flat, damp valleys near the Rhône, one of these creatures suddenly appeared before her. It raised itself upright and brandishing its long arms uttered awful, unearthly sounds.

A doctor, who had lived all his life in those parts, asserts that if the *goitre* appears in three successive generations in the same family, the fourth was invariably infected by crétinisme.

Mrs. Delmard volunteers the somewhat unkindly reflection: "If this be true, it would be a curious matter of research for statistical heads to discover how many ages must elapse ere Switzerland will be entirely a nation of 'crétins.'"

A word as to the English Alpine Club and its duties.

English Alpinists.

An Englishman who questions a Swiss Alpinist as to his ideas of the English club will be astonished at the marvellous ignorance entertained on the subject of the entry qualifications. I have been solemnly informed that it is impossible to become a member of the English club unless the candidate has been on a mountain where a fatal accident has occurred. At a recent meeting of Swiss clubbists it was gravely stated that the English establishment must soon decay for want of members, "for," said the speaker, "as it is a *sine qua non* for a candidate that he should do a new summit, and as there are very few new

THE ALETSCH GLACIER

summits within reach of the majority of climbers, the club will soon consist of about a dozen very rich mountaineers who will fill the *Alpine Journal* with their doings ! "

However, the fact of a man being a member of the English Alpine Club is a guarantee that he knows something about mountaineering. I think it will be allowed that English clubbists have taken a leading part in the development of the art of mountaineering. The archives of the English club are exceptionally complete. The club itself is most comfortable, and the champagne excellent.

As things are at present and as long as the world retains its present shape, Switzerland will remain the playground of 99½ per cent. of English mountaineers. America, Asia, and Africa will no doubt have its devotees, but these pilgrims will have longer purses, better staffs, and more highly ornamented sandals than the other ninety-nine and a half. As long as this is the case, then, the attention of the English Alpine Club ought to be directed to a sphere of work which is open to it in this country. I allude to the construction and maintenance of club huts. At present all these erections have been placed at the expense of the Swiss club. Of a hundred people who mount—say, the Wetterhorn—in the year, about seventy are English. The huts—whose convenience only veteran climbers of the last generation deny—are used, therefore, for the most part by our countrymen. The majority of Swiss clubbists do not, on account of the expense and time required, visit the higher peaks. Such being the case, ought not the English club to do something more for their countrymen ? There are still plenty of opportunities for it.[1] The maintenance of those already erected forms no small part of the income of the Swiss club. I do

[1] In August, 1912, there was inaugurated a hut called the Britannia, and subscribed for by British Alpinists affiliated to Swiss Clubs. It is situated on a rock of the Valaisan Alps, above Saas-Fée. It is quite a comfortable *cabane*, with a dormitory for guides, accommodation for forty Alpinists, including ladies' private rooms. On the upper floor there is a well-stored library and reading-room.

not propose a subsidy to the native club, for I am assured that it would be refused, but I am of opinion that a few huts ought to be erected by our English club.

A tendency has been remarked among English climbers which seems to point towards the decay of mountaineering in Switzerland. There are too few virgin peaks for our countrymen. New routes are very troublesome fellows to find now. Nearly every mountain has been "traversed," and until some enterprising climbers shall invent a new way of climbing a summit (I am astonished that no one yet has done a mountain by going up backwards) things are a little dull. But surely all these new routes and "traversings" and the multitude of different ways of going up and down have not the true ring about them. When a man boldly says, "I don't care a fig for the view from the top of a mountain, as long as I get a good climb," we are inclined to praise him. But can an uninitiated layman understand the triumph of Jones (who has, perhaps, wandered from the steps of Robinson for a hundred yards or so) who trumpets forth the fact that he has discovered a new route? I am afraid that the only reason for these deviations and doublings is the fact that in a corner of the *Alpine Journal* it will be announced that "Mr. Jones, with the guides X. and Y., has discovered a new route up the *Dent des Anes*. Starting early in the morning, they followed the route of Mr. Robinson as far as the couloir. There, instead of continuing the same route, they took to the rocks on the right, while Mr. Robinson's party had kept to the left. After an hour's climbing they crossed the couloir and rejoined the old route, arriving at the summit at — o'clock."

I am afraid my countrymen do not perceive that for all this they are being heartily laughed at in Switzerland. Let them drop, then, these meanderings, and boldly go up and down a mountain like any ordinary human being, and let them show elsewhere, among the virgin summits of the Caucasus and the Himalayas, that they are equal to the troubles and difficulties of new and untrodden paths.

CHAPTER III

INDUSTRY AND COMMERCE

ONE hardly cares to cavil with writers who, holding forth on the subject of their own country, are inclined to exaggerate the truth to their own glory. This is an excusable weakness with the Swiss. If his country has been much written about, it must be confessed that much of this writing has been done by himself.

Industry and Commerce.

It is a well-known fact that although the Swiss *fabricants* pretend to supply 90 per cent. of the good working watches of the world's market, the watch-making industry is passing through a terrible crisis. All this notwithstanding, you may read in the shoals of *réclames* spread broadcast by the Verkehrsbureaux, that watch-making is the most prosperous industry of the country!

However, previous to examining this vital question, a brief notice as regards the industry for which the country is celebrated may not be out of place.

The art of watch-making was introduced into Switzerland in 1587 by Charles Cusin, a Burgundian clock-maker, who settled at Geneva. The city was already famous for its jewellers, and the watch, in its new element, soon became a bijou. Watch-making became a flourishing branch of industry; thus, a hundred years after Cusin's advent, there were over a hundred manufacturers employing three hundred workmen and turning out five thousand watches every year.

A sort of guild was formed, the laws of which were very stringent. The conditions of apprenticeship and regulations between man and master were duly set forth. It is only right to say that Geneva has kept her reputation, through long ages, for the manufacture of fine watches.

A Frenchman, likewise, was the means of introducing the industry into Canton Vaud. He settled at Nyon at the beginning of the eighteenth century, and his apprentices established themselves ultimately at other places on the shores of Lake Leman: Vevey, Rolle, and also at Moudon.

From the beautiful shores of Leman the watch-making industry emigrated to the slopes of the Jura, and finally to Sainte-Croix. In these quiet, mountain regions, life was of the simplest, thus the trade was able to develop unrestrained.

Once the iron bonds that the guild bound it down with were burst, and more liberty was afforded to all workers, watch-making soon became the occupation of most of the inhabitants. And watch-making, like silk-weaving in Lyons, was a secular privilege of families. In the latter city, the looms were in the homes, and families lived together, prosperous in a sort of patriarchal existence. It is not without a feeling of sympathy for the people that one witnesses the decline of the two industries, owing to the fact that wholesale and cheap production drives the workers from the homes to the factory. So with Lyons, thus it is with the Neuchâtelois watch-makers. It is the story of the Spitalfield's weaver over again. At the present time, the Jurassien cannot reconcile himself to factory work and hours.

Watch-making.

For centuries the Neuchâtelois mountaineers enjoyed a monopoly of the industry. Hitherto, their occupations were the making of scythes, tools, and ironwork clocks. The women worked at lace on the cushion.

One day in the year 1679, at a village called La Sagne, in the jurisdiction of Le Locle, an apprentice blacksmith named Daniel Jean-Richard was working at his forge, when a passing horse-dealer entered and expressed his annoyance because his watch had stopped. Daniel stared. It was the first watch ever seen in the country. Confident in his light touch and already *au fait* with the working of clocks, he took upon himself to mend the timepiece, and succeeded. The dream of his

youthful ambition was to make a watch. The old fogies shook their heads. It was a difficult problem. But the blacksmith thought it out, and made the tools necessary for the work. Alone and without assistance he tried, experimented, lost heart, commenced over again, and finally succeeded at the end of a year. The first implements were of a primitive kind as compared with French tools of that day.

Jean-Richard and family opened a workshop in 1705 at Le Locle, where his work prospered. He formed a number of apprentices, among these his own sons. Here was the birthplace and cradle of the vast watch-making industry that keeps prosperous the whole population of the Neuchâtel mountains and neighbouring cantons.

The principal centres of this industry in Canton Neuchâtel are Le Locle and Chaux-de-Fonds. The former place is reputed for its complicated chronometers, while the latter is the world's market-place for dealing in watches of all kinds.

An excursion to these parts is most interesting. Just as certain towns in England are given up to straw-hat making, ribbons, lace, cotton-goods, so in these mountains will be seen a very beehive of watch-makers.

Neuchâtel erected a monument to Daniel Jean-Richard in 1886. As will be seen, Geneva held firm to its closed corporations, whereas in the Neuchâtel mountains the manufacture became independent and domesticated. Two opposite conceptions of work and production.

Such an industry, appealing alike to artistic tastes and research in mechanical combinations, eventually produced geniuses, and the number in the history of watch-making is great. Jacquet-Droz invented automatic figures, which, exhibited for over a century everywhere in Europe, have now been acquired by the historical museum of Neuchâtel. Ferdinand Berthoud, of Couvet (1727-1807), invented naval clocks. Abraham Louis Breguet, of Neuchâtel (1747-1823), whose house still exists in Paris, perfected the instruments for measuring time. Georges Leschot introduced to Geneva

the machine-made watch. Louis Frédéric Perrelot, of the Le Locle (1781-1854), was watch-maker by appointment to Louis XVIII, Charles X, and Louis-Philippe of France.

Until recent years the manufacturer had his own shop and employed a few expert workmen. The separate parts of the works of the watch were made outside, in the homes of other workers, and these parts were put together in the workshop.

In 1866 13,706 workmen produced 800,000 watches a year in Canton Neuchâtel. Competition and cheap production are slowly killing the trade, although the Swiss are fighting a brave battle.

The establishing of observatories for timing the pieces astronomically has been of great benefit in regard to expensive timepieces.

The federal government has established a control over gold and silver goods, thus every good watch is hall-marked, which is a preventative against cheating.

Worthy of note is the fact that the proceeds arising from this control are handed over to the canton where the control is exercised, to be employed for works of utility. In many instances the money is spent on professional education.

The first signs of any serious competition to this national industry were revealed in 1876, at the Universal Exposition of Philadelphia. The Swiss delegates were dumbfounded at the immense strides in the industry made by American manufacturers. The consequence was a revolution in the Swiss methods. Time-worn customs were swept away. The old-fashioned system of home fabrication had to go by the board. New tools were employed. Capable mechanics were engaged in the manufactories, and the cheap, machine-made watch was produced as perfect as in America. The small worker, operating on his own responsibility, still finds occupation, for he is invaluable for the delicate work required for expensive chronometers.

The opening of vast workshops has completely altered social

life. The work-people have formed trade unions and clamour for higher wages and shorter hours, which fact, together with the over-production and trade competition, will hardly help to improve matters.

So impressed are the Swiss with the importance of maintaining a supremacy in the branch of watch-making industry that professional schools have been started everywhere. And when we read of the gradual extinction of various industries in England, one regrets that a more desperate stand is not made to restore past glory. True, we are told that free trade is the invincible enemy in England.

The professional trade-schools are of various kinds. Here the head men, foremen, artists, tradesmen, are trained. We have watch-making proper, mechanical and electrical schools. Schools of applied arts for ornamenting the watch, and commercial schools.

The ancient guild of watch and clock-makers, whose patron saint was Saint Ely, received royal letters patent from Louis XI in 1443. According to its statutes, apprenticeship was for seven years, and a workman was not able to become a master unless he had produced a masterpiece and paid 100 pounds.

The same stringent regulations obtained at Geneva in the seventeenth century. The apprentice was bound for five years, and no apprentice could be taught outside a radius of the city of twenty leagues.

Later, and up to the middle of last century, the Cantons Neuchâtel, Geneva, Vaud, and Berne apprenticed their beginners to men of renown, whose particular mission was to teach the young idea. This system, however, involved numerous journeys, long and expensive. It was found difficult to co-ordinate ideas and inculcate knowledge according to divers methods. Geneva was first to comprehend this drawback, and her first professional school was started in 1824. The commencement was not successful, for the old stagers had no faith in theoretical instruction, and many parents share

this belief. In brief, the new system had to contend with routine.

Necessity, however, knows no law, so that with the growing competition technical schools were opened in the following cantons: Geneva, Neuchâtel (at Chaux-de-Fonds, Le Locle, Neuchâtel, and Fleurier), Berne (Bienne, St. Imier, and Porrentruy), Soleure (Soleure town), Vaud (Valley of Joux). Thus, there are ten professional schools for this little country. The programme of instruction is not general but adapted to the requirements of each district. The schools are largely subsidized by the Confederation. Several of the schools have a museum annexed.

Herewith are some figures denoting the situation of the watch-making trade in 1907-1908. The numbers refer to watch-cases controlled by the State—

	Gold	Silver	Total
1907	.. 657,502	3,137,962	3,795,404
1908	.. 565,679	2,123,675	2,689,354

After a period of slackness, when in one year (1907–8) there was a decrease, the output per annum has almost reached the earlier figures previous to 1907, viz., 3,800,000.

In the year 1906, considered by the trade the most prosperous, the number of gold cases hall-marked was 818,565 and of silver cases 3,408,131; total 4,326,696. Thus, it is shown the difference between 1908 is 252,889 gold and 1,284,456 silver cases; total 1,537,242. Nothing more eloquent than this, denoting the frightful crisis the watch-making trade was undergoing. Of course, too gloomy a view of the situation must not be taken. The trade, like other industries, has been influenced by the general commercial crisis.

The critical, albeit temporary, condition of this industry is naturally the subject of debates in the cantonal parliaments. One orator ascribes it to over-production; mechanical production, he contended, has been introduced everywhere in manufacturing watches, and has completely revolutionized

the way of living. Farmers are without hands for heavy work; impossible nowadays to get female help. Thoughtlessly everyone has rushed to the factory, hoping trade would get better and better, and that there would be no reflux. Thus, with so smiling a horizon, the workers reckoned on short hours, evenings and Sunday free.

What is the real tableau? Once herded together in the workshop the workmen comprehended at once their power in union. Hence the bitter struggles between employer and man. The latter is pitiless. No trade? But we must have work. Do not talk to him about economies, slackness of trade, an understanding between the two parties! If the "patron" cannot keep him, he had better clear out and allow the men to share what remains.

The orator concluded that it was not the crisis that caused him uneasiness, but the misunderstanding between the employers and the working classes. No doubt, workmen will tell another tale; argue that farmers and fine ladies would like them to slave on the land or wait hand and foot on the fine dames in their drawing-rooms. The influence of the trade union is such that the employer of labour is caught in a mesh of legal prescriptions, obligations, regulations, prohibitions, inspections, controls, and inquisitions.

Canton Berne, among other laws for the protection of the working classes, voted a measure compelling all shops to close at 8 p.m. The trades-people in the summer resorts, of the Oberland for instance, are up in arms. Their chance of selling their wood-carvings, embroideries, picture post cards, lasts but a short season, and most of the business is done in the evening, after tourists have dined. During the day visitors are away on excursions. Here is another law that will have to be amended.

The competition of France and America is a source of uneasiness to the Swiss. Besançon, in the Jura, is a great watch-manufacturing centre. French syndical corporations are asking their government to increase the duties on Swiss

clocks and watches, and make them equal to those paid by French makers on their watches that come into Switzerland.

In 1910 Switzerland exported *horlogerie* (clocks and watches) to France to the value of 5,890,000 francs, and received in return for 2,007,173 francs, leaving a balance in favour of Switzerland of 3,086,000 francs.

Thus, by increasing the duty, Switzerland would be severely hit. The case has been under consideration in Helvetia, and in such an eventuality the duties on French wines and liquors, imported to the value of 9,855,000 francs in 1910, would be at once raised.

It is estimated that 115,617 persons, 55,988 males and 59,629 females, are employed in Switzerland in watch and clock-making, located as follows: forty-two, 4 per cent. Canton de Berne ; thirty-four, 2 per cent. Neuchâtel ; seven, 5 per cent. Soleure ; 6 per cent. Vaud ; four, 2 per cent. Geneva ; one, 2 per cent. Outer Bâle ; 0.7 per cent. Ticino ; 4 per cent. Schaffhausen.

The exodus to Canton Berne (Jura-Bernois) to the detriment of Geneva and Neuchâtel, especially, is explained by the tardy building of manufactories, these places having let slip the enormous production of cheap silver and gun-metal watches.

Geneva is well known for its artistic jewellery, enamels, and silverware, but has much difficulty in competing in this branch with France, the land *par excellence* of art and artistic inspiration.

The manufacture of musical-boxes was at one time a prosperous industry, but these have been cut out by recent inventions, gramophones, phonographs, etc., in which Americans are far ahead of the Swiss.

Clock and watch-making being so closely identified with the country, I have given it the place of honour among national industries. But with the introduction of electrical power, produced by hydraulic pressure, water (the white fuel) being had at will from the lakes, rivers, and waterfalls, other industries

have developed at an amazing pace, and, aided by the splendid professional initial training, are highly prosperous.

Switzerland is one of the few countries that have no coal or mineral mines. The anthracite of Valais, and the ligneous combustible found in Cantons Zurich and St. Gall, are hardly worth mentioning. The 250 peat-beds supply a substance good enough for domestic use. The only mineral extraction is a little iron ore at Delemont, employed by the only Swiss smelting-furnace at Choindez. Other matters extracted from the soil, beyond building materials, very abundant, are salt and asphalt. Salt is found along the Rhine, near Bâle, and also at Bex (Vaud). The production, which varies, is about 50,000 tons per annum, and supplies the seven-eighths of the needs of the population. Asphalt is found in the Val-de-Travers, and is exported at the rate of 20 to 30,000 tons a year.

Silk manufacturing existed already in the twelfth and fourteenth centuries at Zurich. Bâle prepared wool. St. Gall and Berne manufactured linen goods. It was not until the sixteenth century that trades developed to any extent and exportation of manufactured goods began. Religious persecutions in that time drove to Switzerland the Reformers of Locarno (1555), Protestants from the Netherlands (1560-1580), and the French, driven from their country by the Edict of Nantes (1685).

Other Industries.

They settled mostly at Geneva, Zurich, and Bâle, and contributed greatly to the economic development of the country. Without mentioning the financial and commercial progress undertaken, the refugees reorganized the silk trade at Zurich and introduced the manufacture to Bâle. It was a French Protestant that brought the watch industry to Geneva. Cotton and wool-spinning found the way already prepared for them in the German-Swiss part of the country, where the inhabitants were already making thread and linen. The great development in printed cottons dates from 1690, and

in the eighteenth century was the most prosperous branch of trade in Switzerland. This prosperity helped the industry of cotton-spinning. In 1721 St. Gall started the manufacture of muslins, this being the starting point of the wonderfully prosperous trade in Swiss embroideries. Straw-plaiting began at the end of the eighteenth century in Canton Argau, and at the same time was started machine-making at Zurich and Winterthur. This branch of industry prospered owing to the gradual substitution in factories of machines for manual labour. In the latter part of the nineteenth century the industries were initiated, of colours and chemicals, electro-chemicals, and alimentary produce.

Textile industries are centred in the northern cantons around Zurich, Bâle, and St. Gall. Silk manufacturing became enormously prosperous during the last quarter of a century, owing to the fashion of wearing silk and the cheap rates of production in Switzerland. In 1900 it was estimated that there were 20,961 hand-looms and 13,326 mechanically-worked ones for silk-weaving. This industry employed 46,619 workpeople, and the amount of raw material handled, about 1½ million kilogrammes. Zurich's speciality is silk in the piece, while Bâle manufactures ribbons. Concurrently with these industries is that of silk-dyeing. Since 1879 several large factories have been opened on the other side of the frontier, on German soil, to save the duty charged on silks. Bâle numbers seven manufactories of floss silk, made from the scraps left over from piece and ribbon manufacture. Kriens (Lucerne) has a similar factory, working for the Lyons market.

Cotton-spinning was highly flourishing up to 1870. It has declined owing to competition in Italy, where labour is cheaper.

The prosperous embroidery trade is located in Cantons St. Gall, Appenzell, and Thurgau. This branch is universal, insomuch as embroideries are exported to all parts of the world. The greater part are finished off in the neighbouring

parts of Germany and Austria, the Voralberg, where labour is cheaper. The market, however, is at St. Gall, where the great merchants have their *comptoirs*.

In 1900, St. Gall, Thurgau, and Appenzell employed 26,812 hands at this work, who worked 13,950 hand-looms, while 7,430 hands work improved shuttle-looms. Embroidery-making is very remunerative, as the article is sold at a fairly high price, while the material employed costs little.

Technical education, which has made the Swiss such a master of crafts, has played its rôle in the important iron and machine industry, primarily an accessory to textile industries. The making of machinery flourishes since 1902, following in the wake of the utilization of hydraulic power and electricity. The torrent-like rivers of the country, of no avail for navigation, are an immense motor-force producing element. Professor Wyssling has drawn up a chart showing the different parts of the country where are the hydraulic establishments. At the close of 1890, a dozen *usines* existed supplying electrical power, estimated at $3\frac{1}{2}$ to $4\frac{1}{2}$ thousand h.p. Eleven years later there were 194, to which must be added forty-one private enterprises. All these produced a total of 100,000 h.p., of which 95 per cent. was obtained by water-power. In 1907 it was estimated that 210,000 h.p. was utilized for electricity.

Hydraulics and Electricity.

The value of the capital invested in these undertakings was calculated at 84 million francs. Employment was given to 10,500 hands, and a sum of 67 million francs realized.

In the working of some of these hydraulic mills the fact of low water at times has to be considered, consequently coal cannot be altogether dispensed with.

The eventual substitution of electrical instead of steam power on the federal railways will allow a saving of $4\frac{1}{2}$ millions of francs. According to calculations, it is estimated that it will require 125,000 h.p. to work all trains in a period of twenty-four hours.

In view of preserving the natural hydraulic resources of the country, and in anticipation of the electric power needed for the railroads, the federal parliament has passed a law enacting that waters of the country cannot be employed in foreign parts without the assent of the government. This permission is granted for a limited time, not exceeding twenty years. It can be withdrawn without notice on payment of compensation. Electric light is so cheap that houses in every village employ this luminant.

Electric power is generally employed in the vast engine and machine factories of Escher, Wyss & Co. (Zurich), Wyss & Co. (Oerlikon), Kriens (Winterthur), Sulzer Bros. (Geneva, Baden, and Bâle).

The city of Geneva makes ample use of electric power produced by hydraulics, in utilizing the river Rhône. These services are municipalized and consist in general of water, gas, and electricity supply. These municipal services, including the installation of model *usines*, cost the city 34,731,245 fr. The profits realized during ten years vary between 7·28 per cent. and 9·77 per cent. The town supplies the electric power for the tramways as well as for the Salève mountain railroad.

Two magnificent electro-hydraulic establishments have been erected over the Rhône within late years. The most recent is at Chèvres.

The turbines at the latter establishment are calculated to produce 800 h.p. in summer and 1,200 in winter. These are of a particular make, thus to obviate the use of dynamos of too great a dimension, and are superposed, so as to be employed according to the season.

Professor E. Imer-Schneider, civil engineer of Geneva, has published an interesting pamphlet giving all the particulars relative to these establishments.

Alimentary produce forms a flourishing branch of Swiss industries. The milk produce is enormous, estimated at 15½ million hectolitres, to which may be added 2½ million hectolitres goats' milk, annually. It is said that 17 per cent. of

the milk is employed in breeding and fattening cattle ; 45 per cent. is consumed by the population, while 18 per cent. is used for making cheese, butter, condensed milk, and chocolates. The production of milk has been favoured in later years by the constant rise in the price of milk. Emmenthal is the great centre for the Swiss cheese industry, although another great place is Gruyère, a district in Canton Fribourg.

The Swiss cheese industry is such a vast undertaking, this produce being in demand all over the world, that its organ, the *Emmenthalerblatt*, published at Langnau, has the largest circulation of any Swiss newspaper. It is a most interesting paper, although the first thing its readers look for are the market-prices of cheese. An imitation Swiss cheese is made in Lombardy and gets on the foreign markets.

Swiss cow-breeders farm out the milk their animals produce and thus know what their revenue is likely to be.

Butter is but an accessory of cheese-making. There is little or no exportation, while for home consumption butter has to be imported.

Condensed Milk.

Condensing milk was initiated by a French chemist, Appert, in 1827. But little was known of its use until 1870. Two Americans named Page doing some tall talking about exporting Switzerland, at Zurich, laughingly proposed to condense milk. The idea caught on, and the establishment at Cham was the outcome. Swiss milk in tins is, or was, as familiar to English and Americans, as their morning coffee.

Nestlé, at Vevey, has carried on this industry with marked success, and then came *farine lactée* (food for infants) and milk chocolate, the latter a recent industry on a vast scale. Small factories, such as those of Peter, Kohler, Cailler, and Tobler, soon developed into colossal enterprises, with a turnover of millions and millions of francs.

The immense success of these products is due to their invariably excellent quality ; to the enterprise of makers in studying popular tastes, and especially to advertising on a vast scale.

Suchard (near Neuchâtel) was one of the first manufacturers of chocolate and cocoa on a large scale. Owing to the immense over-production and a consequent glut on the market, as well as in local competition, the many new manufactories springing up in consequence of the fortunes being made, there is a slump in chocolate. Most of the enterprises have been turned into companies, and the paper placed among Swiss speculators.

Cocoa, added to sweetened condensed milk, evaporated by dry air, produces a sweet, aromatic dissolving pasty, *i.e.*, chocolate.

One of the reasons why Swiss chocolate is so comparatively cheap is the small cost of sugar, especially before the Brussels convention. Duty on it was only 1 fr. the quintal, the same as on cocoa. The enterprise of the Swiss in the chocolate trade has been of benefit to English manufacturers. In the spring an order was given by a Swiss condensed-milk and chocolate firm to Messrs. Geo. Salter & Co., of West Bromwich, for the manufacture of six thousand automatic slot machines.

In a country where so much beer is consumed, brewing is an important industry. The Brewers' Association represented, in 1910, 146 breweries. Switzerland brews over 2,500,000 hectolitres of this beverage every year ; 140,000 other hectolitres of foreign beers are imported annually. Beer-brewing has also gained as an industry by the introduction of improved methods in the process of production.

We now come to the industry more familiar to tourists and better known as the *Industrie des Étrangers*. The country is so overrun by tourists and visited by foreigners from all parts of the world, for leisure, pleasure, education, and all sorts of purposes involving the spending of money, that the commerce arising therefrom has had to have a denomination of its own. The catering for this immense cosmopolitan crowd is called "*Trading on Foreigners.*" There is a certain amount of candour in this expression. The Swiss, however, think

"Industrie des Étrangers."

nothing of it. As a practical people, they have raised the catering for strangers to the rank of a fine art. So seriously do they take their mission to heart that they would be offended if you told them that they live on the foreigner. In their estimation they are under no obligation to the stranger, who comes to enjoy the privilege of all the advantages the country offers.

As all these foreigners are under the rule of the Swiss, virtually at his mercy, the caterer enjoys an enviable position in the social system. Eighty per cent. of these foreign visitors are ignorant of the different languages spoken in the country. Moreover, in the case of English and Americans, any knowledge whatever would be useless, because the German, or Swiss prototype, be he hotel-keeper or waiter, will always address you in English. These observations are of minor importance, however, because hotel accommodation, which is of more importance, is admirable. The hotels are neat and clean and most comfortable. The numerous so-called palaces are even luxuriously appointed, and charges are much more reasonable than at the seaside or tourist hotels in England. Obviously, there must be some sort of superiority, otherwise Swiss and Germans would not be called upon to manage hotel-concerns in Great Britain.

The foreigner industry, general to every canton, is a source of wealth to the country. The foreigner in spending his money helps every branch of commerce. Not every Swiss views with pride this special branch of industry. A Swiss *littérateur* called it the "weak spot in our organization." In this age of lucre the hotel-keeper may well scoff at such-like philosophers. There is no longer any stigma attached to his calling. He is a man to be envied in Switzerland. He fares of the best, can start a business with a minimum of risk—because it is well known that an hotel always succeeds, from the day its doors are opened—and capital is always to be found, if needed.

The days are gone when the facetiously inclined would tell you that the first hotel-keepers in Switzerland were the robbers hounded from their strongholds on the Rhine.

Beyond the hoteliers, a large proportion of the population is engaged in "trading on the foreigner." With the high season, the English and American newspapers teem with complaints of tourists, who pretend that they have been done. This is altogether unfair, and I have no doubt these complaints refer to very isolated cases.

With the present organization of hotels and general tariffing of everything, there can be little chance of complaints of unfair dealing. Times have altered, since the seventies of the last century, when an American resident (a Consul) wrote as follows in a work published by Orell, Fussli & Co., Zurich—

"Seldom does an inexperienced tourist leave a Swiss hotel without exclaiming, 'The bill is larger than I expected'; this to be followed by a dispute with the chief clerk, a soured temper, and a day's pleasure lost for ever. Hence, even in pleasure-seeking, there is a business propriety that should lead one to know the price of a thing before he buys it, and the best way to know the price of a week's board, is to ask the landlord to make a memorandum of each and every charge to be made, and then remember that wines and fires and baths and lights and, sometimes, bows, are things that are charged for extra. Bills for hotels, carriages, guides, porters, and the like, are always smaller, if determined upon in advance, and those who think the outlay too insignificant to mention beforehand, should not complain afterwards, if imposed upon. In the larger towns, drivers of public carriages, cabs, etc., are, by law, required to carry printed tariffs, but these tariffs are frequently stowed away from sight, that the driver may double his charge and become, instead of a common carrier, a common robber. Nowhere is there a more disgraceful and unprincipled grabbing at the purse of the traveller than here among the guides, porters, and drivers of many public conveyances, and the only way to avoid the imposition is to demand the tariff in advance. Should imposition still follow, the grievance may as well be pocketed, as appeals to the police are heard one day, considered another, and decided only, if at all,

long after the traveller has disappeared. Gratuities, though always expected, are nearly as often wasted, when bestowed upon many of these fleecers, self-trained to a species of petty robbing."

Such an indictment causes one to smile at the present day. The only occasion on which an hotel-keeper would be inclined to take advantage of the stranger is at the height of the season, when hotels are crowded to overflowing. Even in this case, the traveller is warned beforehand of a rise in the tariff.

Doubtless the days when Oliver Goldsmith wandered through the Alps and played upon his flute as a recompense for a night's lodging are gone. So, too, are the days of universal fleecing. Where, however, there is reason for complaint, is among the petty tradesmen, the coiffeurs, for example. Last May, otherwise out of the season, I went to a hairdresser to have my hair cut. After thirty years' residence in the country, and speaking all the languages, it hardly occurred to me to ask the price of so simple an operation beforehand. When I went to pay I was charged double the usual price, and five times more than a Swiss would pay ! !

Perhaps, the temptation to do you is common to all caterers at pleasure resorts (this happened to me in a city). The moral is: make your price beforehand.

Swiss Honesty. The reputation of honesty is so universal that in England the Switzers are talked of as the "honest Swiss," the "simple Swiss."

Their honesty may be summed up in the following manner. An English lady dropped a fifty-franc note in the streets of Montreux. "I am not a bit anxious," she asserted. "It will be brought back to me. The people are honest in this matter. The pettiest, or the most valuable article, if lost or left in a conveyance, is readily restored. It is a principle among them. But petty pilfering is looked upon as cleverness in business transactions."

The lady recovered her banknote. The sharpness of the people on the make is such that this acuteness is common to

police and magistrates alike. The keen scent of the latter may be such that they enjoy the advantage of a sort of double-sight; an occult power in discovering misdeeds. In the circumstances, it would hardly be wise to keep anything so compromising as a picked-up purse or an umbrella or bag. This sort of ransom I have never heard of in England. Nor have any complaints of the kind come to my knowledge at Nice, where in shops, large and small, the dealers are most obliging, and visitors are treated like the natives.

The *Industrie des Etrangers* is now considered one of the leading branches of the commerce of the country and has its organized associations. The hotel-keepers form an influential corporation. Verkehrs-bureaux, subsidized by the communes, look after the matter of advertising by sending illustrated booklets out broadcast. The one predominating effort is to get the stranger into the country. The various sites are glorified; public and private education vaunted. It is an acknowledgment of the fact that the country is indebted to foreigners for a part of its prosperity. The Swiss are wide-awake enough to know that such benefit does not reside solely in the money spent at the hotel or in the shops. Their object is farther-reaching. A small army of tourists keeps up the national credit; railway shares remain at par; house property maintains its value, while the foreigner, struck with the beauty of the place, may invest in land and build himself a home in the country.

Hoteliers' Association.

The Hotel-keepers' Association was founded, ostensibly, to give its members a social standing in the eyes of the people. For some reason or other these personages are not held in an odour of sanctity by the liberty-loving Swiss. Their privileges are too great; their independence too absolute and overbearing. The stranger is entirely in their hands. Ask any small tradesman at Lucerne, and he will tell you the hoteliers have their heel on his neck.

The present generation of hoteliers, who, following the

spirit of the age, have turned their concerns into companies, are the first of a more pretentious class. Their fathers were all simple folks of very modest origin, hearty and bluff in their manners. There is no harm in their sons aspiring to social honours, I presume. The hotel business in no way suffers.

The Hoteliers' Association is avowedly established in view of protecting the rights of its members. Anyone involuntarily offending a member had better beware. He is ostracized at once. American and English newspapers that fail to mark the proper time are boycotted. This was the fate of Gordon Bennett's paper some years ago. However, even so powerful a *vehmgericht* as this corporation could not afford to fight long with the owner of *The New York Herald*. So the interdict was rescinded.

No very reliable statistics are obtainable as to the hotel business. Of tourists alone every year, there are said to be nearly three millions, who spend about 20,000,000 fr. in the hotels.

In 1905 the number of hotels in the country was 1,924, of which 1,104 remain open all the year. Twenty of these houses have from 300 to 500 beds, and seventeen of the total number are situated at an altitude of 6,000 to 9,000 feet above sea-level.

In 1905 these hotels employed a staff, comprising both sexes, of 33,480 employees, who were paid over eight millions of francs in salaries.

The amount of capital engaged in the hotel business is said to be 800,000,000 fr. The takings are put down at 188,717,000 fr., and the expenses at 131,380,000 fr. The percentage of tourists, according to nationality, is given as follows: Germans 31 per cent., Swiss 22 per cent., Anglo-Saxons 13·5 per cent., French 12·1 per cent., Americans 5·8 per cent., Italians 4·60 per cent.

These figures have varied little since 1894. It goes without saying that the Americans and English are considered as the

best class of money-spending tourists. If in the statistics the length of sojourn was taken into account, English would come out on top.

In these figures Russians appear to be overlooked. Yet the Moscovite spends the winter at Montreux and in the Engadine.

Swiss enterprise has been the means of making the winter season remunerative by the organization of winter sports in the Alps. Certain places, such as Grindelwald and Kandersteg, have had more visitors than they could accommodate. The Engadine is also in high favour, and is visited by the German Imperial family in winter.

The development of Swiss commerce is due to intelligent specialization in all branches of industry, in order to get the greatest return out of the product. This remarkable organization of every branch is particular to the hotel industry, iron foundries, the milk trade, banking business, etc.

Any Englishman requiring an object-lesson in business cannot do better than come to some of the Swiss cities, or manufactories and *usines*.

At the close of 1908 the federal government published statistics concerning the Swiss national budget.

	Receipts	Outlay
	(Millions frs.)	
1899	100·5	98·1
1900	101	102·7
1901	101·9	115·5
1902	107·2	106·5
1903	112·6	110·1
1904	115·4	115·3
1905	129·3	116·7
1906	133·4	128·6
1907	145·9	139·9
1908	147·4	150·9

It will be seen that this last financial year closed with a deficit, due, it is said, to a general decrease in customs' duties: total receipts 70,322,000 fr., 2,043,000 fr. less than the previous year, and 558,000 fr. under the budget estimates.

GRINDELWALD—SKI-RUNNING

However, there was no reason for alarm. Since then, the budget has indicated prosperity, with a deficit of only 2,000,000 francs.

It is claimed that much of the success of Swiss commerce is due to judicious advertising. A writer in the *Revue Générale des Sciences* (April 15th, 1907) affirms that publicity in the United States swallows up 600,000 millions of dollars, of which three-quarters are wasted uselessly. The fact is, advertising is a science, reposing upon the principles of applied psychology—otherwise a knowledge of human nature. My opinion of Swiss commercial success is based upon the following facts. Like the Germans, they are a people that recently entered the arena of commerce. Forty years ago, essentially engaged in agricultural pursuits, at the close of the Franco-Prussian War, they met with unhoped-for possibilities. The education and technical training, and likewise the discipline of the races, found them splendidly equipped for the battle. The prospects of unheard-of gains whetted appetites, added increased energy, and not being spoilt by fortune, they did not lose their heads. I do not believe in any other scientific explanation of German and Swiss commercial success. This much may be added. The enormous success these nations met with rendered them intrepid, consequently enterprising. Great Britain and France, satiated with success and wealth, allowed themselves to be caught napping. German and Swiss commercial successes are on the surface ; the sinews of war are greatly wanted, and during the present stagnation the general situation is critical. The ground gained will not be lost, however tight the pinch at present.

It has been remarked how readily English people invest their capital abroad. Certain Swiss hotels have been entirely put up with English money, and will never show a return of more than 2 per cent., if that.

It should be mentioned that the success of the Swiss and the German in the hotel calling is due to natural causes, one of these being a knowledge of foreign languages. Singular

though it may appear, no hotel-keeper can manage his house unless he speaks German and French. Then a knowledge of the habits of other countries acquired by travel is obligatory. There are reasons why he should be in relation with his confrères of other parts.

The Frenchman is not successful as an hotelier, although there is an awakening enterprise in France, with the series of hotels built at the instigation of M. Ruhl, and the hotels of the companies "des Centres du Touring," managed by M. Bugnard. In the kitchen and the restaurant the Frenchman rules supreme, and it will take ages to dethrone him.

And again, referring to foreign languages, it may be said that no candidate for the smallest commercial opening, such as clerks, typists, or shop-assistants, is accepted unless possessing a thorough knowledge of French, English, and German. (See Appendix A.)

In so thoroughly democratic a country every possible measure is drawn up and voted at the instigation of the working classes, so that their lot may be made as easy as possible.

Labour Regulations.

Switzerland took a leading part in the International Congress of 1890 at Berlin, held at the instigation of Kaiser Wilhelm.

In this land, by law, all employees of railroads, posts, telegraphs, and customs are guaranteed fifty-two days' rest a year. The responsibility of railroad and steamer companies in cases of accidents is guaranteed by law. The same rule applies to factories. A law passed on April 1st, 1905, allows the Saturday half-holiday for work-people in factories, 5 p.m. being the latest hour of closing permitted on that day. Other measures of a similar nature have been adopted by the cantonal governments.

The federal law of 1877 defines what is meant by a manufactory. All such establishments are subject to government inspection. In December, 1906, the number

of these factories was 6,988, employing some 281,000 hands.

On the other hand, it is agreed that agricultural enterprises shall be exonerated from inspection.

Machinery as well as all parts of the buildings are carefully inspected.

In cases of any alterations or changes contemplated previous notice must be given to the authorities.

All reports of cantonal inquests are sent to the federal inspectors.

Wages must be paid at least fortnightly. Two weeks' notice must be given before discharging a workman. The first fortnight's engagement is looked upon as a trial between the two parties.

The hours of the working-day depend upon the branch of industry and the governments of the cantons.

According to statistics established in 1901, 58 per cent. of workers worked less than eleven hours a day. This number is now calculated at 70 per cent.

The other measures affecting labour are about the same as those in force in England. There is special legislation concerning the employment of children and females, as well as regarding night work.

In 1900 the people rejected the law voted by parliament introducing compulsory insurance by the State in cases of accidents or illness.

The mutual help and friendly provident societies numbered in 1903, 435,000 persons insured in cases of illness. These societies received a small subsidy from the government.

The sick person receives gratuitous medical treatment, an allowance per day, a pension in case of incapacity equivalent to 60 per cent. of his salary, and for widows or orphans 50 per cent. value of salary and 40 francs for the funeral.

Canton Vaud voted old-age pensions, in operation since 1908.

Canton Geneva is now considering the matter of old-age

pensions. The new law has been framed by M. Sigg, the Socialist leader. It purports to grant pensions, beginning from January 1st, 1915, to all Genevese, or Confederates, having resided thirty-five years in the canton, from the age of sixty-five. Pensions ranging from 65 fr. to 360 fr. per annum, and to persons whose income is less than 100 fr. a year.

One and a half millions of francs annually will be needed for these pensions.

The project proposes, in view of obtaining this sum, to increase considerably the death-duties (inheritances from distant relatives) by 20 centimes ; by a new social provident tax ranging from 2·50 fr. to 50 fr., and as a basis for this tax, two millions to be taken from the fund already realized by death duties, by legacies and donations, and another tax on inheritances exceeding 200,000 fr.

This project is now being discussed by the Geneva Legislature.

I have said nothing concerning strikes. There are no really destitute in the country ; but strikes they are always with us. The conflict between capital and labour is chronic. As I write, the carpenters in Berne are out. The Geneva type-setters are on strike, and the newspapers appear in a reduced form.

The fact is, the agitators of the labouring classes enjoy a certain impunity in this country, where the army is of the people, and not the "slave of the State," as is declared.

The Agrarian party acts as a check upon the too revolutionary spirit of the artisan class of the cities, otherwise there is no knowing how the movement would end.

In certain instances, strikes are ended by a mutual agreement between masters and men. The agreement has a time limit. The workmen, however, are never embarrassed by such trifles as word or engagement, and often, after having gained the day, start another strike in view of a further

increase of salary, notwithstanding signed agreements. Unfortunately, in so far as this country is concerned, no improvement in the condition of things is likely.

The rage for luxury and finery is the ruin of the working-classes, encouraged by the immense number of bazaars and emporiums, where men and women spend all their earnings.

CHAPTER IV

ART AND LITERATURE

SWITZERLAND has experienced some difficulty in forming a school of art of her own. Arts, in truth, receive their inspiration from the social centre in which they are nurtured. This much is taught us by the grand ages of Greek, Italian, and the French Renaissance as well as the eighteenth-century art production. The cities of Greece realized to perfection unity in Arts. The world born of Christianity could not hope to create or reconstitute an age, termed the Greek miracle. Art has need of support. Art needs an element propitious to its development. The artist is influenced by his surroundings. Without proper appreciation, how is creation a possibility? And as concerns proper appreciation, people require education, a perception of that harmonious accord—judgment and sensitiveness—which constitutes æstheticism. How, then, during the centuries of strife and war were the Swiss able to form a refined society? Their minds were unable to grasp anything beyond mere form, colour, and relative distance. Education, as we all know, is the only means of bringing into communion of ideal, artist and public, without which art must wither and die.

Swiss Art.

In the early years of development, the country was too much taken up with material prosperity to think of fine arts. Certain influences have left their indelible mark. Masterpieces of the mediæval schools are to be found in museums, and frescoes by Holbein are still exhibited as a curiosity.

But as concerns Swiss art, artists had much difficulty in obtaining some recognition from their compatriots. Their recompense was the approval of a few popular statesmen.

Even to this day, an artist or *littérateur*, unless he be a prodigy, is looked upon with distrust and treated with indifference. Several of Switzerland's greatest glories had to be consecrated by Germany and France before being acknowledged in their own fatherland. Swiss enthusiasm exhausted itself in patriotic festivities.

Notwithstanding so slight encouragement, Switzerland has always possessed a small *cénacle* of superior minds, inspired by the beautiful, and at periods of revolution, the land was the refuge of illustrious men of other countries.

Appreciation of fine arts and literature, albeit somewhat tepid at the beginning, has attained to such intensity as to penetrate all classes of society, in proof of which are the imposing theatrical performances in the open air, the performers in which belong to the people. Thus, the theatre de Jorat, the representation of Schiller's classic play of "William Tell" at Altdorf, and the "Fiancée de Messine," played by several hundred persons at Windisch, Canton Aargau.

However, as in everything new, there is a risk of going to extremes; a too-ready temptation to crown the hero with laurels, alas! not always immortal and that stand the chance of withering with passing fashion. Helvetia, although possessing young blood and talent, all having attained the summit of glory, whose names are too numerous for mention, shows no signs of possessing a lasting glory that shall eclipse the veritable great masters, whose names have gained immortality, and who have just passed away, or who are reposing on their laurels at a green old age.

Among these may be mentioned Arnold Böcklin, of Bâle, who died in 1901, one of the most celebrated artists. A proof of his glory was the pilgrimage of fellow-artists, from all parts of Europe, to the exhibition of his works in 1897.

Arnold Böcklin.

If Böcklin was a celebrity in Germany he was unknown in France. No work of his was exhibited at the 1890 Universal

Exhibition. The great Swiss painter was professor at the fine arts' schools of Munich, Weimar, Bâle, and Zurich. He had married a Roman girl, Angela Pascucci, and his last years were passed at Fiesole, near Florence.

A pupil of his, Hans Sandreuter, died shortly after the master. Likewise a citizen of Bâle, he made a name as a painter. Starting as a lithographer, he afterwards studied at Munich, and was the pupil of Böcklin at Florence.

Hans Sandreuter.

Hans Sandreuter was an admirable landscape painter. The Royal Gallery at Dresden purchased his painting of the environs of Bâle, and he was awarded the gold medal at the Dresden International Exhibition. The museum of his native city has several remarkable canvases of his.

French Switzerland is proud of its great landscape painter, Diday, whose pictures of lake and mountain are found in all the galleries of the land. Another celebrity, Calame, was a pupil of Diday, and his paintings of Swiss scenery count as masterpieces. Calame was born at Vevey in 1810, his father, a stonemason, coming to Geneva when the artist was young. Calame visited England in 1840. He died young at Menton.

Diday and Calame.

In all ages arts and literature have been inspired by glorious actions in defence of the fatherland. An instance of fervid patriotism and art combined is the ancient Kapellenbrücke at Lucerne, on which paintings by artists of other ages depicted the great deeds of their ancestors.

Modern art boasts a brilliant exponent of this branch in Ernest Stückelberger, who restored the frescoes in the Tell's Chapel in the Höhlegasse at Küssnacht. Through his great talent the story of William Tell, dear to all Swiss hearts, has been brought home with more patriotic significance. All beholders of the head of the hero are struck with admiration by the force of expression, energy, and haughty pride that the artist's brush has realized.

Ernest Stückelberger.

If many Swiss artists in former times remained ignored and lived a life of misery, the Swiss to-day are ready to honour their illustrious offspring. The Stückelberger festival at Bâle, in honour of the great artist's seventieth birthday, in which all brother artists took part, was a touching demonstration. His admirers presented him with a gold commemoration medal, engraved by the already celebrated artist, Hans Frei.

Switzerland not only honours her artists by demonstrations of admiration and esteem, but frequently in a more practical manner, by the purchase of some of their work. Thus, the Confederation bought three paintings by François Poggi, a French-Swiss artist, follower of the Barthélémy-Menn school.

In order to encourage art in the country, there are numerous scholarships, legacies, or subsidies granted by the federal government, thus to enable budding genius to study in foreign lands.

The Confederation and the cantons vote certain sums for the acquisition of paintings and sculpture, the work of national artists. Canton Berne purchased for its Museum "Les Lutteurs," the work of its celebrated painter, Charles Giron, for the sum of 60,000 francs.

The trustees of the Gottfried Keller donation purchased for the sum of 25,000 francs the "Spartacus," a marble by the Ticinese sculptor, Vela. Canton Neuchâtel collected in very little time the 90,000 francs for acquiring the "Pêcheurs de l'Adriatique," by its illustrious painter, Leopold Robert.

"Minerva and the Graces," a tableau invoking an antique poem, and also the "Romans Passing Beneath the Yoke," by the great Vaudois artist, Gleyre, were bought for the Vaud Museum. Every year similar purchases of works by rising artists are acquired by the Confederation or by museums.

Marguérite Gilliard, the girl artist, born at Plainpalais, Geneva, in 1899, although of Vaudois origin, carried off the

honours of the Diday competition. She excels in depicting mountaineers and mountain scenery with astonishing freshness and vigour. One of her tableaux has been purchased by the Geneva Museum and other works of hers were on view at the Federal Exposition at Winterthur and at the municipal exhibitions at Geneva.

Marguérite Gilliard.

Geneva boasts another artist of the fair sex who, despite a physical deformity, has become celebrated for her painting. This is Mlle. Rapin, a Vaud citizeness. Born armless, she creates her works by painting with her feet. One can imagine the noble energy required in order to surmount such obstacles. Mlle. Rapin executed a portrait, by command, of Queen Victoria of England.

Mlle. Rapin.

Owing to the difference of language and opposite characters, there is little communion, especially in literature, between German and French Switzerland.

Fine arts fraternize more readily, because they are in need of no translation to render them comprehensible. Their beauty is taken in by the eye.

An artist familiar to both parts of his land, perhaps because born on the limits, at Jus, between Lakes Morat and Bienne, is Albert Anker. In Paris, he was a pupil of the great Vaudois painter, Charles Gleyre. His painting, " Two Little Blue Stockings," won for him the gold medal at the Paris Salon. Shortly afterwards he received the Legion of Honour, and in 1900 obtained a degree from the Berne University.

Albert Anker.

Anker illustrated the works of the patriotic writer, Jeremias Gotthelf, and he has by his paintings illustrated Swiss national history : " La Soupe de Kappel," an episode of the religious war of Zwingli, and " Pestalozzi at Stans."

His artistic influence in Switzerland has been considerable, by his works and as member of committees. For several years he was a member of the federal commission for the Gottfried Keller donation fund.

The beauty of Swiss nature, at times poetic, wild, and melancholy, other times all smiling, has been an inexhaustible fund for artists; as also the variety of landscapes and the different national costumes, although the latter have practically disappeared.

Albert Anker is the painter of the Bernese peasant; Louis Gianoli, Genevese artist, is the exponent of life in Canton Appenzell. Initiated in the manners and customs of the inhabitants by his stay among them, familiar with the Alpages and pasturages, the artist, by his talent, reproduces to life the rusticity of the people and their ancient customs, and his tableaux convey an impression expressed by the German-Swiss word, *heimelig* (homely). For this reason, Gianoli is one of the French-Swiss painters best known in the German part of the country.

Louis Gianoli.

The National Exhibition, in 1896, made him celebrated. His works were admired; the Confederation purchased one, and another was acquired by the St. Gall Museum.

Gianoli excels in other subjects besides Appenzell life. Some views have been produced of Lake Leman, the suburbs of Geneva, the Savoy Alps, and, quite recently, the borders of the Sahara, that he has just visited.

Together with the great animal painter, Koller, Canton Zurich possesses a young artist of great future in Frl. Louise Breslau, who recently acquired renown at the Paris Salon with her tableau, "Vie Pensive," since purchased by the Confederation. This work was unanimously praised in the French Press, the *Temps* being particularly eulogistic. Singularly enough, while the French journals and those of French Switzerland lauded the young artist to the skies, the *Zuricher Zeitung* applauded with faint praise. Fräulein Breslau is of Zurich, and this fact goes to prove once more the old adage that one is not always a prophet in one's own country; and, moreover, that the conception of art is often quite different between

Louise Breslau.

Swiss of French and of German Switzerland. Whereas art in the French-speaking part of the country is more delicate and refined, its expression in the German parts is more vigorous, male, and expressive.

The vitality of artistic life is demonstrated by the numerous exhibitions, always well supplied with works of local artists.

A Group of Artists.

Among other artists to be mentioned is Albert Gos, a Genevese, who excels in depicting mountain scenery. One of his recent tableaux was purchased by the Luxembourg Museum. Other names may be cited: Henry van Muyden, Fontanaz, Gustave de Beaumont, H. de Saussure, Herzog, and Heer, all of whom are at Munich. Canton Vaud can boast another genius in Charles Vuillemet. A portrait of his own father, exhibited in the Paris Salon, was greatly admired and praised, a copy of the same being exhibited a year after in London. Vuillemet is one of the most remarkable portrait-painters, and his presentments of Monsignor Toulon, of Comte and Comtesse de Coligny, of Feldmaréchal de Hürter, destined for the Academy of Vienna, are masterpieces of the genre.

Swiss artists make a worthy show at foreign exhibitions, as already shown. Thus, at the Munich Exhibition in 1909 out of 370 works on view 130 were by Swiss artists.

In the matter of art the Swiss are intensely patriotic. All government or municipal orders for decorations are given to native artists. Georges Guibentif, a Genevese, commissioned to decorate one of the new school-buildings, had a most delightful inspiration. He chose for subjects the fairy-stories of "Red Riding Hood," "Tom Thumb," and the "Fox and the Grapes," which, necessarily, must awaken in the heart of the child a sentiment of art, so beautifully are they portrayed.

Ferdinand Hodler.

Perhaps one of the most notable names in the world of Swiss art is that of Ferdinand Hodler, of Berne, whose work was lauded and criticized alike at the outset, by partisans and adversaries. At all events, the fresco he has executed for the Aula of

the University of Jena in Germany is a remarkable work of art. When exhibited at the Künstlerhalle in Zurich, it was universally admired. Depicting the march of German students against the French, enthusiastic energy and virility are expressed in the faces of the four foremost figures, while in the background are seen the serried ranks of students, marching with martial tread. The sketches of Hodler's "Battle of Marignan" are in the National Museum. Hodler's work is decidedly German in character; quite the contrary to that of Otto Vautier, whose paintings, and especially his frescoes, were seen at the recent art exhibition at Geneva.

To conclude the list of Swiss artists who have obtained notoriety, I will mention Eugène Burnand, of Moudon (Vaud),

Eugène Burnand.

another of Bartélémy-Menn's pupils and illustrator of Frédéric Mistral's immortal poem "Mireille," his "Fire Engine," "Swiss Farm," and "Alpine Bull," which represent rustic life in Canton Vaud.

In collaboration with A. Baud-Bovey and Furet he helped to create the grand panorama of the "Männlichen," an immense canvas representing the Oberland, in which are depicted the Jungfrau Eiger and Wetterhorn, with an imposing view of glaciers, snow-peaks, dizzy precipices, deep mysterious valleys, together with accompanying chalets and cattle.

His greatest works are the "Flight of Charles the Bold," and that impressive canvas, "Via Dolorosa," which figured at the Paris Salon and contains no fewer than forty personages, all done by a master hand.

Paul Robert, a nephew of the celebrated Neuchâtel artist, Leopold Robert, must not be forgotten. He it is who decorated the Federal Palace of the capital with

Paul Robert.

panels representing Justice, Peace, and dados of the Bar, Peace, Law, and Heroism.

Art through schools has not developed to any extent in Switzerland, and any efforts in this direction are quite recent. In the large cities, such as Zurich, Berne, Bâle, and Lausanne,

schools of art exist; that is to say, schools where the elements of design, painting, modelling, and sculpture are inculcated. As for any real school of fine arts, it is quite lacking, and Swiss artists are compelled to resort to the French and German schools to complete their studies.

Art Schools.

Geneva has transformed her municipal school of art into a fine art school, without, however, competing in any way with the foreign ones.

On the other hand, there are, in all the large cities, important industrial schools which prepare youth for applied arts, as required for jewellery, enamels, engraving, and woodcarving.

Sculpture, the most ancient and noble of arts, has few adepts; nothing in comparison with the sister art, painting, notwithstanding State encouragement. The authorities are ever ready to entrust to Swiss sculptors the work connected with new buildings, decorations, and statues, and any reproach to the contrary is unfair.

Sculpture.

The craze for setting up busts or placing medallions in honour of every deserving man is a universal mania at the present day, the contagion of which has not spared Switzerland—*Honi soit qui mal y pense.* This mania then comes as a godsend to the budding artist. Although sculpture is by no means in its maturity, Switzerland boasts a few sculptors of renown. Vincenzo Vela is a son of the great artist, Spartaco Vela, a native of Ligornetto, near Mendrisio, Ticino, where is the Vela Museum, a gift to the Confederation. And here are seen his works as well as those of his father. The fertility of this artist is remarkable, and his admirers are enthusiastic over the idealism that marks his conception of art. Far too many artists of the present day pretend that art resides in materialism, reality, and are glorified when able to reproduce nature with all her imperfections; men and things in all the nude prosaism of everyday life. The contemplation of art

Vincenzo Vela.

identified with the beautiful, which moves and impresses us by its sublimity, carrying us together with the soul of the artist to ideal regions, instead of stifling us with the vulgarities of commonplace life, is like unto the refreshing brook.

Who can help being moved to tears when gazing on Vela's "Ecce Homo," in the National Museum at Ligornetto, in which poignant grief and agonizing expiation are so divinely expressed? His "Last Hour of Napoleon," exhibited at the Paris Exhibition in 1867, was placed by Napoleon III at Versailles, where the statue is mentioned as being the work of an Italian. Another statue, presented to Columbia by France, by the same artist, represents Christopher Columbus, with an air of triumph, bringing a young and beautiful savage girl to Europe (emblematic of America), a work of infinite grace. His "Spartacus," a virile creation, was purchased from Russia by the Confederation. Two other statues representing "Despair" and "Desolation" are most touching in expression.

Many of his fine statues are in Italy: that of Cavour is in the Genoa Stock Exchange; "France and Italy," offered to Empress Eugénie by the ladies of Milan; his bas-relief, "Victims of Labour," now in the Museum at Rome, etc., etc. A bust of General Dufour and a plan of the Brunswick monument at Geneva are to be seen at the Ligornetto Museum.

In presenting his works and his home to the Swiss Confederation, it was his hope that his legacy would be the foundation stone of a National School of Art for Swiss artists, but the outlook is still very depressing.

Hermann Peter.

Among rising Swiss sculptors is Hermann Peter, a native of Solothurn, born in 1871 and settled in Paris. His beautiful statue of "Spring" was the great success of the Paris Salon in 1905. Peter is an artist of the classic school, in a measure influenced by the refined and realist French school, although losing none of his own originality. His "Fish-woman" of the markets expresses boldness and energy, whereas his masterpiece,

"Pain," denotes the antique style, by its grandeur and simplicity. Amongst decorative groups executed by him are the allegories of the Hotel des Postes at Chaux de Fonds. A statue of "Echo," charming by the grace of lines, is destined for a music-room.

The four large statues that ornament the Lucerne post-office are the work of a Bernois, Alfred Lang, son of a watch-maker. To his chisel is due also the statue of "Science" that decorates the façade of the new University of Berne, as well as three others in the Federal Palace. He is also the author of numerous busts and medallions and monuments. Yverdon has a statue of Pestalozzi, and the busts of Welti, Stämpfli, Lang, and Ruchonnet, former presidents of the Confederation, all by him.

Alfred Lang.

Canton Vaud has several sculptors of renown. Raphael Lugeon is the son of David Lugeon, author of the famous chimeras on Notre Dame de Paris, and is professor of modellage and design at the Industrial School of Lausanne. He it was who made the statue of his compatriot and artist, Charles Gleyre, as well as the portico of the cathedral. A name of a Swiss celebrated in France before becoming known in his own land is that of James Vibert, born in 1872 at Carouge, near Geneva. Vibert is a young artist, already famous. His tragic work, "Vita in Morte," was unanimously praised in the French press, and his "Wrestlers" and "Aurora in the Alps" only added to the great reputation he had already acquired. Several of his groups have been admired in Switzerland, as, for example, "Liberty and Peace" and the "Three Swiss" in the Federal Palace at Berne. But his greatest *chef-d'œuvre*, over which he spent several years of his life, is "Human Effort," purchased by the French Government, who had it cast in bronze.

Other Sculptors.

This group of statuary represents Humanity on the road to Death, trailing the weight of human misery and suffering

at her feet, and encouraged in her onward march by the siren voices of Art and Poetry. This masterly group measures thirty feet in length and seven and a half in height.

The sculptor may yet be seen at work in the studio of his chalet just beyond Carouge.

A fine specimen of decorative sculpture may be seen on the new Art and History Museum of Geneva. This gigantic group, executed by Amlehn, a German-Swiss, measures thirty-three feet by five in height, and represents " Renown " leaning upon the eagle of Geneva ; on the right hand is Architecture and on the left Painting and Sculpture. Amlehn was recently elected a member of the federal commission of fine arts.

Niederhausen, a Bernois, is among well-known sculptors. One remarkable marble of his represents the torso of a woman whose features express passion. It is called " Offering to Bacchus." A haut-relief, " L'Initiateur," is a monumental project showing us Adam and Eve.

Sculpture is an art, which, given its destination, and the prominence accorded in placing the works, attracts more public attention and is more familiar to the people than painting, which one is almost disposed to call a private art, while sculpture is for everyone. Statues and busts in public parks and gardens bring native talent into notoriety. The monument to the Republic at Chaux-de-Fonds is a noteworthy example. A female figure, expressive of strength and pride, has a Prussian eagle under her foot. She is in the attitude of scaling a rampart. In her left hand she is waving a French flag ; to the right is a drummer-boy beating a charge, while to the left is an old revolutionary pointing a pistol at the enemy. The author is Charles L'Eplattenier.

The monument of William Tell comes from the studio of a Zuricher, Kissling. The whole work breathes proud and energetic independence. The busts of Molière and Corneille in the Geneva theatre recall the name of Charles Toepffer, a Genevese sculptor, a name already illustrious by the paintings of Adam and writings of Rodolphe Toepffer. Charles

Toepffer's work comprises a number of busts, statuettes, and medallions. His statue of " La Zingarella " is at the Rath Museum at Geneva, and close to the Russian Church is a bust of Rodolphe Toepffer, the work of the son immortalizing his illustrious father.

Hugo Siegwart, of Lucerne, is the author of the Haller Monument in front of the Berne University, recently inaugurated. Another sculptor is Regazzoni, of Fribourg, who is the author of the statue just unveiled at Geneva of the patriot Philibert Berthelier.

Switzerland is making every endeavour to encourage local talent, but her efforts do not always meet with popular approval. The Government subsidy of 120,000 francs, just voted, the previous 100,000 fr. not being considered sufficient to meet the end, has been severely criticized by the Socialists.

The Literary Movement.

Much of interest could be written on the subject of Swiss literature in the past, and some very curious and interesting documents might be exhumed. Among the many writers who have dealt with this subject are Philippe Godet and Virgile Rossel, while a more recent recruit is M. de Reynold, of Fribourg, whose recent work, " L'Histoire Suisse au XVIII Siècle," has attracted much attention.

In the short notice it is our intention to devote to the Swiss literary movement, our remarks will concern more particularly contemporary writers.

In no province of art is the contact less felt between French and German Switzerland than in literature. Men of letters of either section are reciprocally ignored one by the other. This mutual ignorance is excusable in a sense, owing to the total difference of race and tongue, which has for consequence two schools of literature, one quite distinct from the other. As a natural result, literature in Swiss-Romand derives from the French school, whereas in the German-speaking part of the country literature has a spiritual affinity with the Teuton, without, however, losing any of its character and originality.

A few good translations help in a measure to bridge over the chasm that separates the two.

In following the traditions of the two great countries, in whose languages the two schools indite their works, they are writing for a public that it would be difficult for them to find at home, with so limited a population.

French-Swiss literature is not so rich in poets; her poetry is not marked with that high degree of enthusiastic lyricism and fervid patriotism, or characterized by intense sentimentality as in German-Switzerland. The French-Swiss poet is delicate, dreamy, slightly realistic, and elegant in style.

The master of Swiss literature is undoubtedly Gottfried Keller, the great State official, for many years disdained by his compatriots as an unsuccessful painter and a poetaster, who, seeing the indifference shown him, swore either to become celebrated or to discard art and take to bootmaking. He kept his word. The great work of this master-mind, "Der Grüne Heinrich," is acknowledged by all Germany to be the most instructive and noblest work of the romantic school since Goëthe. His other masterpiece, "Die Leute von Seldwyla," ten stories in four volumes, is a highly literary production. His poems are marked with the same genius. The "Parteileider" and "Frühlingsodem der Völker" were published by Herz, of Berlin. He breathes through his "Gesammelte Gedichte" a communicative enthusiasm, and his national hymn, "An Mein Vaterland," set to music by his friend Baumgartner, is full of intense patriotic fervour.

Gottfried Keller.

A French-Swiss author, Edouard Rod, was born at Nyon, and was honoured by the Académie Française. Although living most of the time in Paris, where he edited the *Révue Contemporaine*, he remained true to the fatherland, most of his novels dealing with his native land, such as "Roches Blanches," "La Haut," "L'Incendie," "Mademoiselle Antoinette." He was a distinguished writer who dealt with such subjects as

Édouard Rod.

political life, for example, in "La Vie Privée de Michel Teissier." The religious dissensions and troubles of the young generation are depicted in his novel, "L'Indocile," while "Le Ménage du Pasteur Naudié" is a study of Protestant society.

Édouard Rod was a prolific writer. His novels, his historical and moral essays and reviews are legion. He has also written for the stage. His "Réformateur" was played at Geneva. Zola's naturalism inspired some of Rod's work, as in the case of "Les Sens de la Vie," "Les Trois Cœurs." His long residence in Paris and his leaning towards French methods cause French people to consider him one of their own. Decorated with the Legion of Honour, he died in 1911.

Victor Cherbuliez.

A French académicien, Victor Cherbuliez, belongs to Geneva. He contributed to the *Révue des Deux Mondes*. His writings are marked with finesse, wit, logic, and graceful irony. This distinguished writer's fiction, while inspired with much clever wit, is full of penetration and keeps the reader under the spell of the charm of his inventive style. Such is the case in "Samuel Brohl & Cie," "La Ferme du Choquard," "La Gageure." "La Bête" is a remarkable work, combining realism, idealism, and irony with non-believing science and simple faith alike. Amongst his studies are the "Grand Œuvre" on the origin of the globe, and "Hommes et Choses d'Allemagne," a collection of papers contributed to the *Révue des Deux Mondes*.

Benjamin Vallotton.

The manners and customs of the Vaudois are well sketched by Benjamin Vallotton, born at Gryon, Bex. His novels are characteristic of his land, and many of his compatriots recognize their own portraits in his rough and jolly types, in such works as "Portes Entr'ouvertes," "Propos du Commissaire Potterat," "M. Potterat se Marie." His "Famille Profit" is a clever skit on middle-class people in a small Vaudois town. It has received recognition from the Académie Française. This novel was dramatized and performed at Lausanne last winter under the title of "Rose."

C. F. Ramuz is a countryman of Vallotton, whose works have a local savour. His "Circonstances de la Vie" is written in a plain and sympathetic language.

His compatriots in the German part of the country might well reproach him with his proneness to twit them with their too great fondness for milk-coffee and potatoes.

Canton Vaud recently honoured its poet, Juste Olivier, by erecting a statue to his memory at Gryon. He sang in verse the rustic life of his country in "Chansons Lointaines" and "Chansons du Soir." The collection of poems, "Les Deux Voix," was partly contributed to by his wife. Honour has been done to both by the medallions let into the rock at Gryon, representing Olivier and his companion, the work of Raphael Lugeon, accompanied by the verse—

Juste Olivier.

"Un vent de poésie a passé sur nos têtes."

Urbain Olivier, the novelist, whose "Fille du Forestier" and "L'Orphéline" are very popular, is the young brother of the poet.

Victor Tissot, a Fribourgeois, coined money by trading on French Chauvinism in the seventies after the Franco-Prussian War. His book, "Au Pays des Milliards," a vulgar caricature of the German people, brought him much money, and was followed up by a similar book on the Austrians. He has since written "La Suisse Inconnue," descriptive of the Gruyère country, no longer "*inconnue*" since the opening of the B.O.M. railway.

Victor Tissot.

The *nom-de-guerre*, André Gladès, conceals the name of Mlle. Nancy Marie Vuille, a native of Neuchâtel. She translated "Mystère du Poète" and "Le Petit Monde d'Autrefois," by Fogazzaro, as well as Sudermann's "Femme en Gris." She was the author of novels: "Au Gré des Choses," "Résistance," and "Stérile Sacrifice," denoting observation and a pure style.

André Gladès.

Canton Neuchâtel boasts another lady author in Mlle. Huguenin, of Le Locle, daughter of a watch-maker, whose pseudonym is T. Combe. Her principal works of fiction are "Cœurs Lasses," "Le Sentier qui Monte," and "Une Croix."

T. Combe.

Among the poets of Neuchâtel must be included the name of Alice de Chambriar, who died in 1882.

Adolphe Ribaux has been rightly styled the creator of the national theatre. His historical drama, "Divico," chief of Helvetians, is a *chef-d'œuvre*, and was performed at Bevaix in July, 1908. His plays, played in the open air, include "Julia Alpinula," given at Avenches, "Charles le Téméraire" at Grandson, and "La Reine Berthe" at Payerne. René Morax is the most prominent present-day dramatist.

The Drama.

There is a school of writers in Canton Vaud, still young and already well known. Virgile Rossel, of the Bernese Jura, has enriched literature with his "Poésies Suisses," and his novels, "Cœurs Simples" and "Jours Difficiles." His greatest work, however, is the history of French literature in foreign parts, and a history of the relations between French and German literature.

A Geneva lady may be mentioned here, author of the tragedy, "La Dernière Vestale," which was performed in honour of the Geographical Congress in 1908. First-class actors of the great theatres of Paris contributed to make a success of the drama. The same author has published several works of more than special interest, "La Spiritualisation de l'Etre," "Peuple Roi," and "La Folie." The *nom-de-guerre* of this lady is Th. Darel.

Gaspard Valette, contributor to the *Journal de Genève* and the *Semaine Littéraire*, has written a work on Mallet-Dupan and the French Revolution, honoured by the Geneva University. Another collaborator to this journal is Paul Seippel. In his book, "Terres Lointaines," he describes his voyage round the world.

Other Literary Celebrities.

FRÄULEIN GEHRHARDT (ACTRESS)

Jules Cougnard, the indulgent critic, who writes in *La Patrie Suisse*, made himself a name with his verses, " Cassons les Mailles," " Le Carillon Tinte," and his " Temps Perdu."

Emile Julliard, who belongs to an old Genevese family, is a writer of some repute and a poet of some celebrity, gained by his " Insomnies " and " Les Istombalines," as well as his comedies, " La Femme," " La Gloire," and " L'Argent." His literary budget includes " Contes de Société," " Nouvelles Orientales," and " Femmes d'Orient et Femmes Européennes," dating from his stay in the East, where he was called by M. Bourée, French Ambassador, to the post of professor of French and Latin at the Lycée Ottoman at Galatz-Seraï.

Samuel Cornut's literary works are remarkable. His novels, " La Chanson de Madelaine," " L'Inquiet," and " Le Testament de ma Jeunesse," are highly appreciated by the literary world.

Isabella Kaiser forms a *trait d'union* between the literatures of French and German Switzerland. Through her German education, of which land she possesses the enthusiasm and sentimental ardour, she unites the two languages. She writes with the same facility in both, and her works in French convey the mentality or condition of mind peculiar to German-Switzerland, so little comprehensible by her French-Swiss compatriots. She was born at Beckenried, Lake Lucerne, but was brought up at Geneva. She is a born poet, as is shown in her volumes of poetry. She was the prize-winner for the cantata sung at the opening of the Geneva Exhibition in 1896. As a novelist her books, " Notre Père qui êtes aux Cieux," " Vive le Roi," " Héro," " Cœur de Femmes," " Sorcières," and " Marcienne de Flüe," denote a fervid idealism indicative of her womanly aspirations. A dangerous illness at Cannes, three years ago, ended happily in her being able to return to her native home.

Tourists who rush through the Gœschenen buffet on the Gothard line hardly realize that the restaurant-keeper is a literary celebrity. His name is Ernest Zahn, born at Zurich,

and is celebrated for his types of Uri peasants lost to the world among the mountains and rocks. Two most known works of his are "Christian Russi" and "Herrgottsfäden" (the Lord's child). Zahn's books have been translated into French by Mme. Sophie Cherbuliez.

Another German-Swiss writer is Heer, whose writings appear regularly in the German review, *Die Gartenlaube*, and whose best-known work is the "Bornina-König."

The popular story-writer in Canton Berne is Jeremias Gotthelf, whose real name is Bitzins, a clergyman at Lützelfluh. He depicts with remarkable skill and fidelity the manners and customs of Bernese peasantry, at times almost tragically, as, for example, in the "Schwarze Spinne."

Premature death carried off one of the most beloved poets and authors, Louis Duchosal, a native of Geneva, a writer in the *Genevois* once, and latterly in the *Journal de Genève*. His "Livre de Thule," "La Forêt Enchantée," and "Le Rameau d'Or," were universally admired.

Auguste Blondel, a Genevois likewise, is known for his book on Rodolphe Toepffer, the celebrated Genevese author of "Voyages en Zig-zag," etc.

French-Swiss literature boasts other poets in Édouard Tavan, of Geneva, author of "La Coupe d'Onix" and "Fleurs de Rêve," and in Henry Warnery, known for his grand poems, "Origine" and "Sur l'Alpe."

Other well-known poets are Zschokke, of Aarau, Frœlich, of Brugg, Conrad Ferdinand Meyer, author of "Jenatsch," a drama, as well as Ferdinand Vetter, who published an account of Haller's youth from the letters he exchanged with Jean Gessner.

Beyond novelists and poets Switzerland boasts a pleiad of literary men who have made a name in various branches of literature, science, and journalism.

Philippe Godet, of Neuchâtel, is a distinguished literary critique and journalist, who has gained further celebrity by his lecturing tours in France, Holland, and in London. For

four years he was editor of the *Suisse Libérale*, and is corresponding member of the Institut Genevois, of several learned societies, as well as of the French Institute. He writes for the *Débats* and contributes to the *Révue des Deux Mondes* and *Gazette de Lausanne.*

Alexandre Vinet, the great psychologist and thinker, now deceased, was born at Ouchy. His celebrity has extended beyond his native canton and a lecture of his on French literature was greatly praised and admired in Paris, and considered as a masterpiece. A paper in behalf of the freedom of religions was awarded a prize by the "Société de Morale Chrétienne" of Paris. Other *littérateurs* should be named: Bernard Bouvier, William Ritter, Noël Roget, Henry Spiess, Ami Chantre, Robert de Traz.

Colonel Édouard Secretan is considered one of the most able military writers in the French language by his work, "L'armée de l'Est." He is chief editor of the *Gazette de Lausanne* and a prominent politician.

Historical writers are numerous. Burkhardt was the historian of the Italian Renaissance. Dändliker, Alex. Daguet, Sismondi, Merle d'Aubigné, Jean de Müller, and Louis Vullemin, of Yverdon, are distinguished for their historical works. The latter also continued, together with Mounard, the unfinished "Histoire des Confédérés" of Jean de Müller.

Scientific Literature.

Geneva claims two celebrities (now dead) in science and literature: Jaques Gabriel Oltramare, the learned mathematician, professor at the University, and Ernest Naville, whose great works on philosophy, science, and religion are too numerous for mention. Among the most notable are the "Histoire de la Philosophie," "La Science et le Matérialisme," "Réligion et Morale," "La Vie Éternelle," etc.

Another great mind is Ferdinand de Saussure, Professor of Sanscrit and Grammar of Indo-European Languages at the Geneva University. He was ten years professor at the École des Hautes Études in Paris, where his memory remains

everlasting in the realms of science, proclaimed as he was their master by such men as Antoine Meillet and Maurice Grammont. His "Mémoire" on the primitive system of Indo-European vowels caused a sensation and has become classical.

The president of the last International Congress of Geography, held at Geneva, July 26th, 1908, was Arthur de Claparède, honorary correspondent of the Geographical Societies of Berne, Paris, and London. He is a practical geographer, having travelled all over the world.

Among Swiss professors of natural history may be mentioned, besides Oswald Heer, author of a classic work, "Le Monde Primitif de la Suisse," Bernard Studer, the geologist; Carl Vogt, the celebrated zoologist; Tschudi, author of the "Monde des Alpes." Among the most recent are Raoul Pictet, celebrated for his discoveries by low temperatures; Perceval de Lariol-Le-Fort, paleontologist, Vice-President of the French Geological Society. The University of Geneva conferred upon him the degree of doctor *honoris causa*. Dr. Forel was a well-known authority on lakes, glaciers, and seismic phenomena. He died at Morges on August 31st, 1912. He was an honorary member of the Alpine Club of London and of the Royal Society of Edinburgh. A standard monograph on Lake Leman is one of his latest works.

A recent literary celebrity, M. A. Forel, lived at Yvorne. His greatest work was "La Question Sexuelle," a volume of 570 pages, which has been translated into thirteen languages.

Switzerland is rich in eminent political men. Among those who have taken rank as statesmen are Louis Ruchonnet, Charles Schenk, Numa Droz (the economist), Emile Welti, (six times President of the Confederation) and Joseph Zemp.

It was during Zemp's time of office that the question of State purchase of the railways, with the exception of the Gothard, was resolved, which his predecessor, Welti, had tried in vain to bring about.

Mr. Edmond Wilhelm Milliet, of Bâle, economist, Director of

the Federal Bureau of Statistics, was instrumental in carrying through the measure for the monopolization of alcohol by the State, and was recently commissioned to study the possibility of a State monopoly of cereals. At the joint suggestion of France, Great Britain, Italy, and Russia, M. Milliet was appointed Inspector-General of Cretan finance.

Among Swiss architects and engineers of some celebrity is Louis Favre, of Chênes-Bourg, Geneva, who commenced the Gothard tunnel, but who was accidentally asphyxiated in one of the galleries. Geneva has raised a monument to his memory. Camelotti, architect, is celebrated for the Post Office and new Museum of Arts and History at Geneva.

Among medical men are Dr. Kocher, of Berne, renowned as one of the first to operate for appendicitis, and for his works on bacilli; Dr. Roux, of Lausanne, is one of his followers; Professor Girard, a well-known Geneva surgeon; and Dr. Jacques Reverdin, Professor at the University, recently deceased.

The Musical Art.

During the last fifteen years immense strides have been made in the cultivation and development of music in Switzerland, and the aspiration to nationalize this art and to realize in written forms what has been already produced in rudimentary tones is very evident in the works of the leaders of the Swiss school of music.

Incontestably one of the heads of the musical world in Switzerland is Mr. Jaques Dalcroze, professor at the Geneva Conservatoire. Born in Vienna in 1865 of Vaudois parents, he began his musical studies in that city under Fuchs and Bruckner. Later he went to Paris, where he studied under Délibes.

Jaques Dalcroze, perhaps more than any other living composer, has grasped and felt the necessity to keep and develop the native elements, result of collective effort and handed down with all their originality from father to son. It is well known that mountaineers in every country, and nowhere more

than in Switzerland, improvise naturally and without any previous instruction part songs lacking in agreeable variations. Exquisite popular refrains are to be found amongst the Swiss peasants, and the Valaisan fiddlers play most melodious local dances, harmonised, it is true, in a very summary fashion, but none the less correct. The works of Dalcroze, from this point of view, are most representative, and his numerous "chansons romandes" and "chansons populaires et enfantines" have rendered his name famous all over Europe. His Alpine Poem, composed for the National Exhibition in 1896, and performed fourteen times by a choir of 500 Genevese amateurs, must not be forgotten. "La Veillée," a lyrical suite comprising chorus, solos, and orchestra, is an absolutely new and original production.

The stage has a powerful attraction for this gifted musician, and his genius in this direction is full of promise. His adaptation of "Janie," a poem by Mr. Ph. Godet, taken from Mme. de Peyrebrunes' novel, has been translated into German and scored a well-deserved success at Stuttgart. A work not less remarkable and even more original is his opera in four acts entitled "Sancho." In this category we must also notice "Le Bonhomme Jadis."

His musical gymnastic method is taught with great success in many Swiss towns, particularly at Geneva, and there is some question of introducing it into the French Lycées.

Of M. Gustave Doret, born at Aigle, and well known in Paris as orchestral conductor of the National Société, may be mentioned the "Seven Words," of which the wonderful chorus, "If thou art the King of the Jews, come down from the cross," gives so vividly the impression of the cry of a mutinous crowd.

Doret has also written "Les Armaillis" (The Cheese-makers), an opera represented at Paris with great success; "Le Nain de Hassli" (The Dwarf of Hassli) and music for the Vine-dressers' Festival. The plot of his "La Tisseuse d'Orties" (The Nettle Weaver) is taken from a work of René

Morax. This writer is a most promising dramatist, and his latest work, " La Nuit des Quatre-Temps," produced at the open-air theatre at Mezières, with incidental music by Gustave Doret, in 1912, met with a favourable review from the International Press. It is a pastoral play dealing with a Valaisan legend.

A laborious and interesting career is that of Otto Barblan, organist, who, by a plurality of offices, perhaps unique in Europe, is at the same time organist of St. Peter's Cathedral and of the Synagogue at Geneva. He is, in addition, conductor of several choral societies, notably of that of Sacred Music (Chant sacré), and composer of well-known works for organ and piano.

When Mr. Jaques Dalcroze was appointed Professor of Harmony at Geneva Conservatoire, he succeeded Hugo de Saenger. The latter contributed in a very considerable degree to awaken and stimulate musical life in Switzerland, where he was beloved and respected. His score written for the Vine-dressers' Fête at Vevey in 1889 deserves mention.

As organizer and manager of the Geneva Popular concerts, Saenger was succeeded by Willy Rehberg, of Morges, composer and orchestral conductor. He has in his turn been succeeded by Bernhard Stavenhagen, of Vienna, certainly one of the modern masters of the piano, under whose splendid management the Popular Concerts at Geneva have become a veritable school of musical education.

In all the Swiss towns, both large and small, are to be found flourishing choral societies, often subsidized by the State.

At Zurich there is a beautiful new " Tonhalle " built on the edge of the lake. It is a superb building erected at the cost of two million francs ; containing two concert halls and a pavilion for concerts in the open air. The two halls can be thrown into one.

An active musical life, manifesting itself in concerts and recitals of all kinds reigns all over Switzerland. Its three Conservatories, at Zurich, Bâle, and Geneva, and its numerous

schools and academies of music are all thronged with pupils of almost every nationality.

The Conservatoire at Geneva, founded in 1835 by Bartholoni, numbers at present between 1,500 and 1,600 pupils, and its professors are of world-wide celebrity.

Frederic Heger, born at Bâle in 1841 and established at Zurich, contributed more than anyone to make the latter town one of the principal musical centres of Europe. True he found the musical education of the Zuricher very advanced, owing to a number of favouring circumstances, amongst others to Wagner's prolonged stay in that town. Heger's chamber music, his oratorio "Manasse," as well as many other compositions of no mean value, place him high in the ranks of Swiss musicians.

As conductor of "L'Harmonie," a choir of men's voices at Zurich, Heger is remembered as a leader *d'élite !*

Hans Huber, of Bâle, composer of about 120 edited works, of which several have obtained great success in Germany, offers a good example of the Swiss school. Like Dalcroze his works are typical of Swiss feeling.

A style of musical composition, produced in Switzerland and almost without parallel in other countries, is the cantatas written for the annual musical festivals (Festspiele) which take place every year in a different Swiss town. The subject is taken from some great historic fact of Swiss history, and on this theme a drama is written and set to music. The piece consists of choruses, marches, and dances, executed by local musicians improvised for the occasion, and the whole performance, which is on a very large scale, is given in the open air.

In this connection, we may mention Edward Munzinge, of Neuchâtel, who has taken as his themes, Sempach, the Oath taken in Grütli Plain, and Tell's Höhle-Gasse.

Many Swiss musicians have won and are winning laurels out of their country, amongst the former the distinguished Pépin and Niedermeyer. The celebrated melody written by the

latter for " Le Lac " of Lamartine has had a European success. Mr. Saint-Saëns says of it in his " Vie d'un Compositeur Moderne " : " Niedermeyer has shown himself a true precursor by composing this exquisite melody."

Mlle. H. Luquiens, of Lausanne, has recently had a great success in London, where she interpreted the works of Franck, Duparc, and Chausson.

A young French composer, Lucien de Flagny, who has settled at Geneva, has written music to a musico-drama, " Bien fol qui s'y fie," played with success at Berlin, Heidelberg, and London. His " Chansons du bon vieux temps " are very popular, and he has set to music some poems of the Queen of Roumania.

CHAPTER V

SWISS HOME LIFE

IT is hardly likely that, in their lavish praise of the beauties of Switzerland in their advertising pamphlets, the Verkehrs-bureaux mean to designate the fair sex of the country. So far as is ascertainable, Byron's gallery of beauties does not include any fair Swiss charmer. Possibly, like the editors of the "Verkehrs' Guides" he was too overcome by still Nature, so entrancing here. Yet for so amorous and poetic a temperament the fact is surprising.

Swiss Life.

Swiss maidens, however, are not without their charm; the charm of the village hoyden. They partake of the character of the race of mountaineers to which they belong—a brawny, large-boned people. The very decided character of the Swiss woman does not betoken much grace of manner. If a woman is awkwardly shy, it follows that a consciousness of this weakness must necessarily spoil her temper. Hence, the fact of her brusque manners, her pleasant ways to a few intimates, but a very curt and rude manner to all others. Although, woman-like, she divines the need of admiration and attention, just as the flower needs the caress of the sunbeam, yet she does not know how to court or accept it. She is Nature's child. The Swiss girl's ungraciousness leads the stranger to imagine that she is annoyed with herself. Is it the self-consciousness of something lacking that causes this *état d'âme?* Her features have a stolid, set expression. How foreign to the play of features that is the charm of the Frenchwoman, however lowly born. The graceful raising of the eyebrows, the bright, appealing eyes, the sudden seriousness, and then the final, gracious set expression, all dimples and smiles, which, in a conversation,

The Swiss Girl.

seems as if waiting for the reply to some animatedly-expressed conviction, the delightful note of interrogation, or who knows ? —the pretty puckered mouth is asking what is the effect of so much concentrated charm. Truth to say, all this natural seductiveness is indicative of a soul, and a soul a Frenchwoman has—governed by a clever head.

Her Swiss sister is not wholly soulless. Her soul, if hidden, is none the less there, and for this reason she is more romantic. Mysticism characterises her sentimentality. It is expressed in the soulful *lieder* she sings ; in the *traümerei* she plays on the piano. And her love once declared is intense, overpowering. Lovers on the steamers or in trains hold hands and gaze into one another's eyes in silent rapture. When out walking they are enlaced with arms about each other, without any concern for public comment.

Seeing a number of couples pass along a country road, once, while waiting for a tram, I turned to a rather pretty girl, who, like myself, was expecting the tram, and in a tone of evident concern, I inquired : " Fräulein, surely those girls must be unwell to need to be held up in that way ? " Her answer was very deliberate. " No," she said, " that is the first stage of courting."

After all, these manners are evidence of a healthy nature. And in truth the crisis, common to us all at a certain age, is not of long duration with the Suissesse, who soon becomes her own practical self again.

The Housewife.

To her credit, it may be said that once married she is not afraid of having a large family, and proves herself an excellent mother. Like the rest of her sex, she is amenable to feminine finery, and nobody more readily adopts the latest Paris fashions than she does, with not too great discrimination, be it added. The cheap millinery stores and shops, mostly owned by Germans, do an immense business.

As to physique, both men and women bear out the ethnologist's theory as to the mixed character of the race. There

are the fine, healthy specimens, as well as the diminutive and weazened. Many pleasant faces ; but few harmonious types.

The Suissesse is an excellent housekeeper. Her instincts of frugality cause her to keep a sharp eye upon the outlay. Too great economy, a too great fear of spending a penny too much, cause proper nourishment to be sacrificed. In certain German-Swiss cantons the children are not properly fed, hence the sickly look after a certain age. This regime accounts for the poor blood of the race. Girls are chlorotic ; begin to lose their teeth and their hair when still young, and many of the faces are blotched. Sad to say, much of this degeneracy is due to the intemperate habits of the fathers and accounts for the infantile mortality, the high percentage of idiots in certain cantons, and " crétinisme " in general.

The Swiss woman is a hard worker. The men intend that she shall have her share of labour. She scrubs away from morning till night. It is her pride that " you may eat off the floor." Unfortunately, personal hygiene is not so carefully considered.

If the Swiss woman is a good housekeeper and a good nurse, she is not the less an adept in the art of needlework and embroidery, In fact, the crochet hook, the needle, and the pattern, are her constant companions, except when her time is employed in superintending the more direct and necessary duties of the house. She draws sometimes, she paints sometimes, and she sings a good deal, but it can never be said that the Swiss woman sings better than the Swiss man, or even as well. A home body, too, is the real Swiss woman, not more from choice, perhaps, than from necessity. Her lord is always gone in the daytime—he is generally gone in the evening ; and oftenest, to places where it is not possible or proper for her to go with him. Beer-gardens do not exist in any such proportion as in Germany, nor are they frequented half so much. In Germany, the husband goes to his beer and takes his wife and children along to hear the music and enjoy the garden. The Swiss, except on Sunday, leaves all except

Photo by *Wehrli*

LUCERNE—A MILK CARRIER

himself at home. Occasionally women are seen in the public gardens and restaurants, with the men; but it is seldom, and is no index to the social pleasures of the female members of the house. The children from eight to fourteen in the northern cantons, especially the little girls, are fresh-looking; and the bright and tidy appearance of both boys and girls in the public schools is a refreshing sight. Torn aprons, dirty faces, and ragged trousers are scarcely allowed upon the public streets.

The men, physically, are a tough, hardy, and enduring class; quick, wiry, and muscular. They excel as gymnasts, wrestlers, and riflemen, and can stand a mountain tramp and climb of almost any length over rocks and snow and ice. They excel the people of all other lands in patriotism and, when well trained, can prove the best soldiers in the world.

Wash-day, or wash-week, rather, is an event of the year, for many of the Swiss people have a novel habit of washing but twice or so in a twelve-month, and then the long lines of shirts and the broad grass plots filled with linen give the surroundings the air of an army hospital. When a Swiss countryman marries he must have a host of shirts, if nothing else; and in some cantons it has been the custom, in certain classes, for the young bride to present her new lord with a comfortable outfit in the way of shirts the day before the wedding. A Swiss lad found begging once was arrested as a vagrant, though, on examining his bundle, he was found to be the proud proprietor of thirty-seven shirts, each and all waiting and ready for the wash. In the middle classes, the principal part of the bride's dowry is often invested in an immense stock of linen that may be considered fully sufficient to last her the remainder of her life, thus avoiding too large a run on the small change of her liege lord for female finery.

You will see the Swiss woman often alone tilling the fields, tending the potato patch, or carrying loads in the *hotte* on her back, in the mountains. In the Champéry-valley, under the

Dent du Midi, the women have adopted men's attire and wear trousers.

Much of the Swiss's time is devoted to gymnastics, to rifle practice, his " Männerchor " and " Sängerverein," " Liederkranz," amateur instrumental societies, skittle and roll-ball clubs. In later years football has become popular among the youth of the country. The greatest encouragement is given to rifle-practice, the target practice being gratis ; ball and cartridge also. These periodical contests are subsidized by the Confederation, and quantities of prizes are offered. There are frequent cantonal " tirs," and the *Tir Fédéral*, or national-meeting, takes place once in every four years at one place or another. As is generally known, the Swiss are fine marksmen.

Men's Pastimes.

In the Oberland the greatest interest is evinced in displays of muscular strength in wrestling matches. It is not uncommon to see near a village, or on a mountain side, a space marked out with stakes and ropes made of greenery studded with Alpine roses and edelweiss, and a few rough wooden benches planted in the grass. This is the arena where the Swiss youth measure their strength, while the different phases of the struggle are being watched with deep interest by the elders, whose approval or disapproval is marked by guttural sounds, as they withdraw their pipes from their mouths, for words are few with them.

There is an annual championship meeting attended by people from places miles away.

Among the Alpine sports are some whose names in German might be translated, " flag-wavers," " hornets," and " haymakers."

The " Fahnenschwingen," or game of flags, consists in the artistic manipulation of a large flag mounted on a short handle. To the strains of the band the player unfurls his flag, waves it around his head, enveloping himself in its folds, without ever allowing the flag to become entangled or bunched together. He tosses it into the air with one hand, and catches

it again with the other; throws it still higher, so that it turns over in the descent. He passes it under one of his legs, then under the other, backwards and forwards, and so on in a variety of well-studied and cleverly executed manœuvres, which are acclaimed by the delighted crowd.

The game of " Hornussen," or hornets, is very curious and exciting. The " hornet " is a disc of wood, rounding in the middle, and about three inches across. This is fixed by means of clay on a stand or " horse," from which it is driven by a well-directed blow from an ash pole, some six feet long, in the direction of a wedge-shaped enclosure in which are posted a number of what we might perhaps call goal-keepers, each armed with a peculiarly shaped paddle of wood. These they throw up into the air in the endeavour to strike the " hornet " in its flight and prevent it from falling, unstopped, into the enclosure. If they thus arrest its course, they win; if it gets beyond them and falls to the ground at the natural end of its flight, the keepers salute, with their caps in air, the player who started it on its course. If the latter has struck the disc so that it misses the enclosure (which presents only a narrow aim) then it is no stroke, or as we say on the cricket-field " no ball." The efforts of the goal-keepers to scotch the flying disc may well suggest an attempt to kill a dangerous insect in mid-air, hence probably the name.

The loading of carts with hay forms by no means the least curious spectacle of the meeting. Haymakers, in groups of two men and three women in each, have to gather up a certain quantity of hay and load it into country carts. The group that performs the task the most quickly and neatly wins the prize. The cart must be well packed and the meadow well cleared and raked before the experts are satisfied.

The Alpine Horn, the blowing of which, along with yodling, forms a part of these sports, is well known to the Alpine tourist. Perhaps he sometimes gets a little too much of it, for we regret to say, that those who wish to turn an easy penny sometimes post themselves along the frequented roads

and blow from a mighty horn, half as long again as themselves, blasts which lack all the charm of distance and appropriateness. Apart from this, however, it may interest readers to know how these horns are made. A straight pine-tree is shaped to the form desired, then the log is divided into equal halves, which are next hollowed out, leaving as thin a shell as possible. The portions are then glued together, and wound round with thin strips of willow for strength and protection. The proper and legitimate use of the instrument is to call the cows home for milking, and in proper time and place its effect is greatly admired by visitors.

Geneva possesses two cross-bow societies, both in flourishing condition, named after ancient weapons of warfare, the Société de l'Arquebuse and the Noble Exercise du Jue de l'Arc. The former has built itself a new headquarters in the Rue du Stand, and the second has just been obliged to sell its old mansion and spacious garden, in which for centuries its members have practised archery, in order to permit of the construction of a new road. It has now a new home on the estate of Richemont, near the Eaux-Vives station, which it has secured for the purpose. The old site at Pré-l'Evêque had been in its occupation since 1557, and the fine mansion since demolished was erected in 1772, partly at the cost of an English nobleman, Viscount Mahon, afterwards Lord Stanhope, who was made a citizen of Geneva in order that he might become " commander " of the society. This latter has been in existence far longer than these facts would indicate, indeed it may be said to date from " time immemorial," for it was a corporate body in 1444, and how long before that has not been ascertained.

The lakes offer fine scope for yachting and crowds of white-winged boats may be seen out at different periods of the year.

The open-air theatre and Festspiele, or historical representations, have been alluded to elsewhere.

The country is so democratic, the influence of the people so all-powerful, that no signs of fashionable life are visible. If

A MULE-BOY

there are any pageant-like weddings they are of the people. The aristocracy is supposed to be an aristocracy of intellect, living in austere splendour in its fine mansions. The young men indulge in motoring and other sports, and generally live outside the country, while their elders take part in local politics as represented by the democratic (or conservative) opposition.

The question of language represents a phase of the life and manners. The Swiss people are educated in the three principal languages, which are those of their frontier-countries, viz., German, French, and Italian.

The Language Question.

In the opening chapter I have remarked upon the grandiloquent style of writers who, much to the embarrassment of the Swiss people, hold forth on the subject of the " trinity of languages." What are the plain facts of the case ? German, French, and Italian are the languages taught in the schools, the official tongues. The real idioms, the languages spoken in the homes, that the mother fondles her child to, that the people speak familiarly together in the workshop, in the café and in business, are dialects, a *patois*. These dialects are a corruption of the languages they are taught. Beyond the introduction of a host of foreign appellations for things, the language is rendered unintelligible by reversing the rules of pronunciation. In German-Swiss all words ending in " eit," instead of being pronounced as in German "ite" (a long " i "), are spoken " eet "—example : " nit so weet," instead of " nicht so weit." *Ab uno. . . .*

The Genevese and the Vaudois indulge in curious colloquialisms, and have a singing pronunciation. A Genevese will be distinguished at once by his exclamations of " Pas Plus ! " " Pensez-voir," etc. This latter is a curious solecism. " Think-see ! " " Goutez-voir " is more rational, as it is equivalent to our " Taste and see ! "

Family life is held in high honour and children enjoy the greatest freedom, going to and coming from school

unaccompanied. The school-tasks are so arduous that there is little or no time for playing about the streets. Moreover, parents are held responsible for the non-attendance of their children at schools.

In a Geneva advertising pamphlet it is stated that the city boasts the finest cadet-corps. Beyond a few "gosses" who form a juvenile band called the "Ondins" and are dressed as sailors, there is nothing comparable to the cadet-corps in German-Switzerland which are thousands strong, and who drill and have their manœuvres with real artillery and are commanded by officers, every year. Latterly, cadet corps of Eclaireurs have been formed.

National Training.

School and camp go hand in hand. Each citizen must be a soldier, and here, in school, at fourteen years or less, the drill for soldier life is begun. The muscles of the body are trained by daily practice with the ladder, rope, and bar. Boys run and leap, heave weights, and jump with sticks and poles, and when the muscles are developed each youth is furnished with a uniform and musket, or a sword.

On pleasant days, on summer afternoons, the regiment is formed; the boys, headed by bands of music, march off to some convenient field and there are taught to step, to wheel, to fire, and all the dreaded art of war. When grown to manhood, they are soldiers, every one, and leave their shops and stores, just as they left their schools, to drill some certain days in each returning year.

Of holidays, both boys and girls have many, very many, in a year. Some cantons have at least eighteen legal holidays and some have more. The town of Arth, on the Lake of Zug, has twenty-three. When these holidays come round, what marchings, what parades of schools take place! A thousand boys are no uncommon sight; and yet a thousand boys, another thousand girls, all keeping step and time, with bright banners and faces brighter still, is better sight than that of armies marching out

Holidays.

to war. These child-parades are common in all the larger towns of Switzerland. When schools commence, the little folks parade; when schools are done, again the little folks parade; and so a dozen times in every year.

The " Promotions " at Geneva is a remarkable sight, when some 10,000 children, from the smallest to the biggest, march in procession.

Sunday, in Switzerland, is not a day devoted to fasting and prayer alone by any means. It is, on the contrary, the very merriest day of the week. To church in the morning and to the theatre in the afternoon or evening—this is often the rule. On Sunday, everybody, rich or poor, high or low, is in the streets or on the steamboats and trains off on excursions. Cheaper tickets than usual are issued by the transportation companies for Sundays, and the crowding masses surge up and down and around from daylight till dark. If there is an unusual attraction at the opera, that attraction is reserved for Sunday night. Is there a hippodrome, a circus, a shooting-match, an election, or a horse-race, Sunday is the day set for the event. Anything and everything that is avoided in England or America on Sunday seems here to be particularly chosen for that particular day; and all this in the land of John Calvin and Ulrich Zwingli. The excursioning alone, apart from horse-racing and other side shows, is, undoubtedly, a real blessing to the labouring classes, who are unable to procure enjoyment on other days; and it is only fair to say that their walks and their rides, as well as their beer and their wine and their coffee, in the pleasant country-places, are harmless and health-giving when indulged in family parties.

The Poor.

It is a well-known fact that you never see a beggar about the streets of Swiss cities, and very rarely any of the wastrels only too evident in large cities of other countries. On the other hand, it is not true to say there are no beggars in the country. Along the mountain roads, around the show glaciers, and running after automobiles, carriages, or diligences are a lot of barefooted

children who, under the pretence of offering Alpenroses or edelweiss, are most persistent beggars and a regular plague. In a lesser degree may be associated with this category guides and touts, who in mountain places offer their services.

However, Swiss philanthropy is a formidable organization. By law each canton has to take charge of its own poor, and if a citizen out of his district falls upon evil days he is helped back to his native canton, or, in the event of impotency, his cost of keep is charged to the same native canton.

Medical assistance is granted free at the sufferer's domicile after an inquiry as to his or her financial status has been made.

The charitable institutions include the Cantonal Hospital, the Maternity, Convalescent Home, Asylum for Incurables, Lunatic Asylum, and several Polyclinics.

The Hospice General is a sort of workhouse for the sick, the aged, the infirm, orphans, and the indigents in general of the canton. General assistance is tendered, in cash, pensions, clothes, burial fees, etc. This institution is supported by interest from a general fund, by donations and legacies, an annual collection, the produce of the police-court boxes, from permits of sojourn, and freedom of the city fees.

The aged and infirm are boarded out, as is the case with orphans placed in a respectable family. A committee attends to the apprenticeship of the latter. Many aged and infirm receive charity at their own homes when in precarious circumstances.

From the police poor-box fund temporary assistance is given to the destitute and their repatriation is paid from it.

The needy and useless are sent back to their native place under supervision of the police. The railways and steamers accord a reduction of half the fare.

The temporary asylums for hard-up passers-by and depending upon charity are the auberges (Herbergen), the bureaux for temporary relief, and working colonies where the needy are employed.

Geneva possesses several funds left by legacy. The

Lissignol assists needy Genevese artists. The Meunier dowers two poor girls from eighteen to twenty-five, born and domiciled at Carouge, for 500 fr. Pensions are also granted to ten aged persons, irrespective of sex, living for five years at least at Carouge.

Another fund provides for aged governesses unable to earn a living.

The philanthropic institutions supported by charity are very numerous, and are governed by a central administration, thus to prevent fraud.

The Benevolent Bureau looks after urgent cases and finds employment for the deserving. Temporary work is given at the wood-chopping yards, or at the address-writing bureau for those of a better class.

There is a Family Bureau where charitable people endeavour to provide work for those that way disposed. There is a Benevolent Society of Masonic Lodges and numerous others managed by charitable citizens.

The French, German, and Italian Colonies have their benevolent societies and the British their Queen Victoria Jubilee Fund managed by the Consulate.

There are a dozen free libraries for those not well enough off to purchase books.

A Geneva Society looks after the abandoned children. Another one protects children and keeps up two asylums, where the youth are brought up when taken from unworthy parents.

There are numerous crêches and classes, managed by deaconesses, while a society takes an interest in prisoners who have done their time. The Night-Asylum gives the tramp a night's lodging. A society has been founded to watch over young girls travelling alone and in search of employment. There are many homes where young girls who are working may live quietly when away from their families. The Blue Cross Temperance Society is an important organization, to which is affiliated numerous other temperance societies,

including those for the care of dipsomaniacs of both sexes. A large committee is working for the suppression of prostitution, while another one attends to the question of immoral literature. The S.P.A. has branches in the country.

The list of philanthropic organizations that appears in the Annual amounts to near upon 400. The Salvation Army has numerous branches in Switzerland. Every possible effort is made to assist the sick and fallen, and only the irreclaimables would care to be seen loafing about.

The Plaint of the Swiss Woman.

One would imagine that home has no great charm for the German-Swiss. His work done and supper over, his greatest desire is to get back to his beer-house, where his place is marked among his comrades at the "Stammtisch," where he has his own chair, his pipe, and his own mug artistically engraved with his name. He is never happier than when enjoying the freedom of the "Bierhalle." The extent of liberty the Swiss enjoys ill fits him for putting up with any restraint whatsoever. His ideas as to the companionship he owes his wife and family are very primitive. He has a vague idea that his duties end once he has helped to increase the population and provide for his family.

Swiss women protest at times: timidly, it is true. A "housewife" writing to the *Courrier de la Côte*, expressed her views thus—

"It is only too true that the sterner sex, that should be the helpers and protectors of the weaker, soon turn out to be, after marriage, the lords and masters. To order about is man's apanage, and his orders are not always given in a dulcet tone flattering to a refined tympanum.

"While man is all the while pulling the coverlid over to his side, he forgets how frequently he could lighten his wife's burden. He votes repairs to be done to the communal inn, so that the taproom where he spends his happy hours may be well aired, heated, and made as comfortable as possible; but he forgets that the public wash-place at the fountain has

no shelter, and that his wife and daughters must clean the vegetables or scour the linen in the pouring rain.

" Man has all the advantages; woman's lot is all the burdens of life.

" He has his fêtes, his banquets, " Kneipen," and gatherings of all kinds.

" We women have the care of the home, the children, oft-times the cattle. Then the constant worry when the man is away! She fancies all the time that some serious accident has happened to him when the hours go by and still he has not come home. How many times does she go to the door listening whether the bells on the horse's collar are to be heard. What anguish when night comes on and still no signs of him! Her fear becomes intense when the cart and horse come back alone.

" You laugh, Messieurs," the writer continues. " Here is a true account of what happened not so long ago.

" They were five of them. Each one with a waggon-load of manure to be delivered at a locality not very far away. They made one journey in the morning and a second one in the afternoon. It was hard work, I'll allow, but why, O why, wet it so as completely to lose the last ray of reason and intelligence? The waggons came back without drivers. The good wives remaining at home were in a terrible state and started off in search of their missing husbands. Two were discovered dead-drunk in a ditch; the others were found at a village inn, and were hoisted into the last waggon, thanks to some ready assistance."

And she concludes: " After this you expect us to love and obey our masters! "

Women's Rights.

There can be no question that with the immense strides in popular education and the numerous professions open to women, the fair sex will get the hearing they deserve. Meetings already take place at which the condition of woman is clearly set forth. Mlle. Vidart is an ardent champion of woman's rights.

In her opinion, family rights are based upon monarchical and not democratic principles. A petition was drawn up claiming the paternal responsibility in cases of seduction. The petitioners had alone in view the vindication of the children's rights.

Twelve feminist societies are petitioning for married-women's right to administer their own property, and that husbands shall give full account of their means and private expenditure.

The Vaudois Society of Suffragettes held its general assembly at the end of May. Sixty members were present. Mme. Girardet-Vielle presided.

In the report read it was stated that victory for their cause had been gained in three instances. In Canton Vaud women now enjoyed the right to the parish vote for their clergy. Women now sit on the school-boards in Neuchâtel and on the civil-code committee.

The same report calls attention to the adoption of the statutes of the Association for Women's Suffrage in January, 1909, and the forming of a central committee under the presidency of M. de Morsier, deputy of Geneva. The seven different sections number in all 800 members.

The Vaudois Association continues its series of lectures on civic education.

Frl. Honegger spoke to the assembly on the subject of her visit to the Suffragette Congress in London.

The President stated in her concluding remarks that it was decided to go to the heart of all questions concerning women's interests. " Give us your entire support. We are not excitable people, and we fully comprehend all the responsibilities we assume ; it is our desire to work in accordance with the mental condition that obtains as yet."

The cost of living is a subject that may interest the housewife. The Swiss woman is so thrifty, counts so closely, that it is no wonder she complains that everything is dearer. The rise in price of all household necessaries is such that

housekeepers were scared when a newspaper announced an increase in the price of brooms and brushes. It was no laughing matter at all, inasmuch as it was a sign of the times; an indication of the increase in price of everything, even to the smallest bunch of leeks or a few eggs that the workman's wife purchases in the market, where the peasant-women explain, in gesticulating, that in this age of strikes even fowls refuse to lay eggs, so that this most necessary kind of food follows the course of other edibles, and eggs were selling for 2 fr. 20 (about 1s. 10d.) the dozen. Such prices could not last long, and fresh eggs are selling at 10d. a dozen. The variation in the price of eggs depends upon Italian imports. Naturally inferior in quality to the Swiss fresh eggs, the quantity of the market affects prices.

The Swiss House.

For many years milk cost 2d. and 2½d. a quart, and after considerably running up the price, the dealers have been compelled to reduce it again to about the previous one, in consequence of the outcry made in the papers.

With the increase in the price of milk, that of butter naturally rose. Kitchen butter now costs 2s. 6d. the kilo or two pounds, and table or "moulded" butter, 2s. 8d.

Household bread is sold at 4d. the kilo or two pounds. There is a cheaper quality at 3½d. Butcher's meat is priced as follows: veal, 1s. 8d. a pound; beef (not the prime English article), 1s. a pound. These are the prices paid by the working-classes.

The prices of vegetables vary according to the season: when imported, French beans cost 3½d. a pound; green-peas, 3d.; a cauliflower, 7d., when purchased at the market. Prices go down as soon as the home-produced spring vegetables come in. New potatoes cost 2d. a pound. The price of sugar is 3d. the pound; coffee, 1s. 8d.; tea varies; jams, 6d.; while chocolates are so varied that no particular prices can be given.

The servant question is one of the worries of the housewife. An ordinary housemaid is paid 35 and 40 francs a month, and a servant that can cook 50 francs.

The reason why the maid-of-all-work is so difficult to find is due to the evolution of the female sex, to the ambition of the lowly born to rise in the world. The Savoyarde girl leaves the farm for the city, and once placed objects to washing dishes because the work makes her hands red, or polishing stoves and boots blackens her fingers. As lady's maid she is readier to remain in a situation, because she is able to play the "petite dame." The pretensions of the slavey are such that middle-class people employ charwomen, who are, generally speaking, the wives of working-men, and are paid at the rate of 4d. an hour or 16s. a month. Women who come in by the day are provided with meals and paid about 3s. a day. They do the washing, work called by the housewife, *nettoyages à fond.*

The general lack of accommodation is a reason why rents are comparatively high, and this fact makes living dearer for the working-classes.

In the cities the modern house is arranged in small self-contained flats, lighted by electricity. The kitchens, although small, are neat and for range have the kind of stove called a potager. A small apartment of three to four rooms, unfurnished, rents at about £30 a year. A small two-storey villa with garden, outside the town, may be had for £60, unfurnished.

The Swiss houses strike you at once as imposing in looks and comfortable to dwell in. This has ever been the case since the old order changed, not a century ago, when the city walls were pulled down and towns began to spread out into the country.

For the present I shall deal with the towns, and by and by refer to the style of Swiss dwelling the reader associates with Swiss life, the chalet, that is seen in all its charm and beauty in the Oberland, and the mediæval dwellings in certain cities such as Berne—the cuckoo-clock town—as Dion Clayton Calthrop once described it in an amusing article.

The ancient dwellings and quarters are huddled together in the very centre of the cities, grouped together for greater

BERNE—MARKET STREET

personal protection of the inhabitants during ages of continual strife. The streets are narrow and dark owing to the height of the houses. Block hides behind block, with a mere expression of a yard separating them, while narrow alleys, burrowed beneath the first floors, like rabbit warrens, allow communication between two of the parallel streets.

Geneva was so guarded in the middle-ages that a passage, called Monnetier, still existing, conducted one by underground ways outside the city walls.

Certain Swiss cities are a curious blend of mediævalism and modernism, as Berne, for example. Tramway cars run through the arcaded streets with their curious fountains—ogres eating children—all playing into stone troughs in the middle of the street.

Curious-wrought artistic signs, in iron and steel, sway overhead. Old clock-towers with immense dials with strange designs greet you. All this in the neighbourhood of the new Federal Palaces, University, and Museums.

The better classes inhabit the new quarters. The architecture is of the French school, or rather the houses are in the continental style—rows of six and seven floor dwellings arranged in flats. The small houses for one family that are the delight of the English paterfamilias hardly exist. The rows of suburban houses of a uniform pattern, forming terraces and crescents in England, are unknown. The effect of these diminutive houses, after the lofty houses abroad, is ever curious on a foreign visitor. A Swiss coming to England for the first time and seeing the serpentines of terraces of tiny houses spreading out below, as viewed from the train, hardly understood what it meant. When informed that these were the Englishmen's proverbial castles, he exclaimed: "Why, I thought they were rows of bathing machines."

Smaller houses are detached, of the villa kind, with garden. Swiss city dwellings, then, have all the characteristics of the continental houses. Comfort is often sacrificed to space. In small flats, the kitchens and other places of convenience are

of limited area ; but the houses are solidly built, the doors are well made, there are no creaking staircases, and the sleeping-rooms are well lighted and aired. The most modest of these houses has its janitor, known as the porter or concierge, who keeps his or her eye upon visitors and is on the watch in cases of a midnight-flitting.

With progress and the spread of popular education, especially in the branches of industrial art, the newer houses are of a more ambitious style, the façades ornamented with white stone-carved figures. There are lifts, while the apartments, beautiful with modern art, are provided with bathrooms and heated by radiators.

To have a flat of four or five rooms in such houses, built entirely of massive masonry, at a rental of £50 a year, would be a luxury to the ordinary Englishman.

No wonder, with the bracing air and the lovely country around, that Swiss cities are much inhabited by English families.

Not a generation back the city hardly extended beyond the walls. Citizens went to the suburbs for a walk, but these now are all built over, tramways connecting the most remote parts with the centre of the city. At the present day, many of the Swiss citizens live several miles away from their businesses. One might suppose that with the prevalent building fever it would be a case of overbuilding, as happens in the suburbs of English towns. The population increases with the number of dwellings here. During the last thirty years dwellings have increased only at the rate of 4 per cent., whereas the increase in population of the country is 8 per cent. In other words, in Switzerland 1,000 dwellers occupied 146 houses in 1870 and 131 only in 1900. Out of 100 houses inhabited there were 686 inhabitants in 1870, whereas in 1900 the number was 764. Hence the fact, that with the enormous increase of new buildings the number does not augment in proportion to the needs of the population.

Switzerland, it is agreed, is a beautiful land, and the country

around its cities, all hills and dales, with a background of snow mountains, is highly cultivated, and studded with superb châteaux and villas. The suburbs of certain cities are a fascinating sight. You have the country-house or palatial chalet, lawns, woods, orchards, and vineyards—the whole overlooking a prospect of lake and mountain. And these surroundings, together with the aspect of the distant ranges of mountains, convey an impression of something austere, grandiose, and noble.

While living at Cologny, a suburb of Geneva, in the Villa Diodati, Byron, in 1816, penned the following verses—

"Clear, placid Leman! thy contrasted Lake
With the wild world I dwelt in is a thing
Which warns me with its stillness, to forsake
Earth's troubled waters for a purer spring.
This quiet sail is as a noiseless wing
To waft me from distraction. Once I loved
Torn ocean's roar: but thy soft murmuring
Sounds sweet as if a sister's voice reproved,
That I with stern delights should e'er have been so moved!
It is the hush of night, and all, between
Thy margin and the mountains, dusk, yet clear,
Mellowed and mingling, yet distinctly seen,
Save darken'd Jura, whose capt heights appear,
Precipitously steep; and drawing near,
There breathes a living fragrance from the shore,
Of flowers yet fresh with childhood; on the ear
Drops the light drip of the suspended oar,
Or chirps the grasshopper one good-night carol more."

Here there is no suggestion of the banal suburban life of big cities in other lands. Once more we find the foreigner taking advantage of Switzerland's safe political situation as a neutral power; wealthy men, be they royalties, politicians, or simply *boursiers*, have invested money in estates in the prettiest parts of the suburbs of Swiss cities. The Heines and the Duke of Flandres have property close to Lucerne. In the neighbourhood of Geneva, the late Prince Jerome Bonaparte's and the Peels', to mention only one or two, are the finest estates. At Clarens and Vevey property is held by French Republicans, anxious to invest outside their own country.

If one is to refer to public buildings, Switzerland, considering its area, can boast some of the finest. These edifices are a latter-day effort, and no wonder the surprise of the Swiss at the paucity, apart from the cathedrals, of splendid public buildings in England. What do the National Gallery, the Bank of England, the Royal Exchange represent as architectural monuments for a city of six million inhabitants ? London has no theatre equalling in architectural beauty and site that of Geneva. The Museums Ariana and Fine Arts are magnificent edifices.

Buildings.

As for the palatial hotels, ensconced amidst beautiful nature on the borders of the lakes, which, together with private mansions, chateaux and villas in their own grounds, form such a fine panorama, as viewed from the deck of the lake steamers, they are well known to all tourists.

The dwellings that one usually associates with Switzerland are the farm-houses to be seen in their most picturesque aspect in Canton Berne. They have long, sloping roofs, with large eaves, made thus to enable the accumulated snow to slide easily off in winter. They are built of wood, upon a foundation of stone, and the woodwork has turned black with age. The rows of tiny windows under the gables give them an appearance of toy-houses. Generally, all the window-sills and wooden balconies are set out with geraniums and other brightly coloured flowers. The house is connected with an enormous barn, the top floor of which is reached by a path made from the earth, thus carts are able to carry the wheat and corn right into the vast storehouse. The neatness of these houses is proverbial, and either separately or in clusters, never fail to attract the attention of the tourist as he crosses the country by road or rail. Dion Clayton Calthrop, in a London newspaper, humorously gives his impressions of the Swiss country houses. Writing from Berne he says—

Country Dwellings.

" I knew it at once for the place of my dreams. The houses

Photo by *Frith*

BERNE CATHEDRAL

have just the quaint inconsequent look dream-houses have, with front doors in the roofs, bee-hives on the first floor window-sills, and grass roads leading up to third-floor balconies.

" Every house here looks like a princely cuckoo-clock, or a fairyland farmhouse without any effort.

" In the town itself, when the principal clock strikes, a little man hits bells and several carved bears dance the hour. After that nothing is amazing.

" When the train was speeding through France, where every decent-size building tries to look as if it had relations in Paris, so giving them the air of a gentleman of a gay life retired to picturesque suburbs, I spoke to my Travelling Companion of Switzerland.

" He supposed it was still there.

" Even as he spoke, there it was, I knew it in a moment, finding that I had known it all my life. It was neat, wonderfully clean, and going like clockwork ; so like clockwork, in fact, that I felt that all the water-mills must be wound up at night, and that somewhere or other there must be an abundance of tissue paper ready to wrap it up and pack it away on dusty days.

" Some skilful tailors had patched the valleys as well as they might. Some drove in stitches with oxen harnessed to ploughs, and made new brown patches where the grass looked a little worn out. And it was all sewn together like a beautiful bedspread ; and each man kept his bit in order, just as if Switzerland was all of a piece and might be rolled up at any moment and put down in some other place.

" I was half afraid it wasn't real and that it would turn, like Cinderella's coach, into some ordinary place full of red brick villas, the pumpkins and mice of civilization. I felt that someone might have been playing in the night and had forgotten to put away his toys. Whole villages had been left on the grass, instead of being snugly packed in wooden boxes. The neatest trees in the world were still stuck up in avenues,

and even clumps. Toy horses drew gaily painted carts; and white bridges, quaint and toylike, were still left across the river.

* * * * * *

"When I found men building a house they were building it in the old style with plenty of wooden beams and galleries, with the ground floor set back under arches, and green shutters to the windows, and often some quite important apartment for pigeons.

"In the gardens every tree had its bird box; one at least, often more, of a long piece of narrow tree trunk with the bark left on and a sloping roof to shelter the entrance and shield the perch from rain. I had seen those bird boxes, in a hundred pictures, in trees under which my heroes had sat talking to fair ladies.

"It is, in fact, just like the pictures; the sky very blue, the green very green, the cows very much the ordinary shape with huge collars, jangling like mad. All real and solid, and at the same time so charged with glamour that I quite expected to see, by watching carefully in the fields, two little men like my Travelling Companion sawing for dear life at a mushroom stalk. The spirit of all this is in the people, who built their houses so like cuckoo-clocks that no one would be one whit surprised to see wooden cuckoos burst out of the top windows; and who paint their beer cellars with wonderful and excellent designs of dwarfs fighting bees, and all manner of common animals dancing among conventional flowers. And who go to the cheap opera in the afternoon and sit dumb through the music, and go to the beer cellars at night and sit silent while a military band crashes out Wagner or dance music.

"I am convinced that though thousands of people crowd here in the season, very few really see it. And I now understand why the Swiss waiters in London, after the restaurants are closed, make little Alps on the tablecloths out of salt, and put toy wooden houses on little bits of green baize, and sit and dream of home. You still can have romance in you

even if you get up at six in the morning and put on dress clothes."

In the chapter on village life something has been said about the chalets, which are an outgrowth of the primitive log cabin. Mountain chalets in the higher altitudes serve as residence, dairy, and stable for the cowherds.

Certain villages are made up entirely of nut-brown wooden houses, and at times are entirely swept away in a general conflagration. This was the fate of Meiringen some thirty years ago, as well as of several villages in Canton Valais, at a more recent date. In many villages no one is allowed to have a fire burning after seven in the evening, and a person found walking about with a lighted lantern of which the glass is broken has to pay a fine of six francs, so great is the danger of fire.

The Chalet.

The chalet consists usually of two stories and an attic. The rooms are small with low ceilings. Walls, floors, and ceilings are all of pine—the walls often being finished in panels. The furnishings are simple and scant. Most prominent is a stove of green tiles, square in shape, and as large as a clothes-press. In many instances the principal living room is adorned with cheap prints of Saints, and of Arnold Winkelried and William Tell. The kitchen is sometimes also the dining-room, and the meals served are frequent. They consist of breakfast, ten o'clock lunch, dinner, four o'clock lunch or *coffee*, and supper. Bread, milk, and cheese, together with soup and sausage, are the main articles of diet. In the village, families keep pretty much to themselves. They are not in the habit of receiving visitors. In fact, it is something of a breach of etiquette to call on a man in his own house.

The Swiss peasants are not communicative. Perhaps it is for this reason that they gaze in wonder, with a sort of vacuous stare, at the stranger. They live a quiet life, ruminating in their chalet homes, or smoking a long pipe in their fields while watching their flocks. In looking at them one is reminded of Paddy's donkey, of which the proud owner

averred that he could not say much, but he was a "divil at thinking!"

In winter the dwellers in mountain chalets shut themselves up for months, having on hand a sufficient supply of provisions. Poor families live thus in one room, which serves as bedroom, kitchen, and living-room. They rarely open a door and these places are hotbeds of disease. I have had occasion to visit some of the better chalets near Beatenberg in the early spring, and the effluvium that escaped when the door was open fairly took one's breath away.

The rural part of the country is well cultivated and the residential houses are large and roomy, having, however, no special architectural feature. The old castles, and there are hundreds all over the land, remnants of the feudal days, when not preserved as national souvenirs, are inhabited by gentlemen-farmers, or turned into large private educational institutions,

Engineering.

As engineers in the building of roads and bridges, the Swiss are past-masters. The mountain highways are the admiration of all tourists. They are splendidly built and beautifully kept up. The mountainous character of the country necessitates the building of numerous bridges and viaducts.

A recent example of engineering skill is the Wiesen viaduct on the Davos and the Filisur railway-line. In former time the Devil's Bridge that spanned a valley in the wilds of Canton Uri, excited admiration. Then followed the succession of bridges on the Gothard line. All these will be eclipsed by the viaduct on the Albula line. It is 75 feet in length, and the depth of the precipice below is 255 feet. The view from this point is remarkable, given its altitude.

Better than this is the new Wiesen bridge referred to. It has a central arch of a span of 165 feet, six others of 60 feet, the total length being 525 feet, while its height over the precipice is 270 feet.

In concluding these notes on Swiss homes and the growth

BRIDGE AT BERNE

of the cities, it may be mentioned that the transforming of old quarters into new, the opening up of new streets and the building of houses, all has been done with foreign capital. From European inn-keeper, Switzerland has developed into banker and builder for other nations, particularly so for her neighbour, France. The vexatious social measures introduced by a democratic government cause general unrest, and capital is largely invested in this country. The laws affecting the religious orders, the holders of untold wealth, have proved a windfall for Switzerland. Capital has been invested in new buildings at two per cent.

CHAPTER VI

INSTITUTIONS AND ALPINISM

THE first railroad Switzerland had dates from 1847, when a short line between Zurich and Baden (Aargau) was opened. Some time elapsed before other attempts at railway building were made. The posting roads were considered the best in Europe, while the mountainous formation of the country was deemed a serious obstacle. Finally, the first parliament that assembled after the vote of the new constitution of 1848, called upon the federal government to examine the question of a general system of railways.

Railways.

Two English experts, Robert Stephenson and H. Swinburne, were invited to Switzerland to study the matter and to draw up a report. The manner in which they fulfilled their mission gave general satisfaction. In the report advice was given to guard against errors, unforeseen at the time of building railways in England, as for example, the folly of competing lines and the erroneous theory that the shortest route between two given localities was the best. Many important places are thus left aside, compelling the building of branch lines.

The general plan once established, the question arose as to who should work the system. The government was for a State monopoly, but the federal assemblies were opposed, thus the rights of various districts vested in the cantons were conceded to different companies. With the grants was stipulated the free carriage of letters and parcels, the Post having just become a government monopoly. In the first place, the cantons controlled the rights of railroads on their territory, but a law in 1872 handed over the entire control of grants to the federal assemblies.

From 1870 to 1876 a number of new railways were

inaugurated, and a crisis was the consequence. Several companies became bankrupt, among these the Berne-Lucerne and the Nationalbahn. The Confederation was compelled to come forward with financial aid. The opening of the Gothard and Arlberg routes restored prosperity and induced further grants.

Singularly enough, Switzerland, a wealthier country nowadays, has reverted to the primary idea and nationalized the railroads by State purchase.

The question of purchase was agitated during a number of years and gave rise to continuous negotiations. The assent by the people was finally voted on February 28th, 1898, by 386,000 for, to 182,000 against the project. The acquisition of the various lines has proceeded gradually thus to avoid issuing heavy loans. The St. Gothard convention, in which Germany and Italy were interested, was concluded in 1910. The negotiations of a diplomatic nature were most difficult and long.

It is stipulated by law that the profits resulting from the railways are to be devoted, in the first instance, to the payment of interest on shares and to the sinking fund ; 20 per cent. is put to the reserve, and 80 per cent. remaining is employed on general improvement of services and reduction in fares.

So far the State exploitation has not produced brilliant results. Too many officials and employés is one reason ; moreover, there was a heavy falling off in receipts last year, owing to the bad tourist season.

Another reason is the subventions granted to the new Rhetian and Loetschberg lines, now nearing completion.

The annual number of travellers in 1905 was estimated at 82,429,588. 11·8 per cent. of these travel with single tickets, 46·9 per cent. with return tickets, and 41·3 per cent. with the short season tickets.

The large proportion of return tickets is accounted for by the fact of their validity for ten days.

The goods traffic for 1905 equalled 13,971,540 tons. The

receipts from passengers was 73 million francs and 90 millions for goods traffic. The total number of employés, 36,307.

Electricity will gradually supersede steam as motor power. The former is already employed for the Gothard and Simplon tunnels, thus obviating the smoke nuisance.

The mountain railroads are a Swiss speciality. Nearly every remarkable mountain has its funicular. These lines are a considerable help to the hotel industry. The principal ones are to be found on Lakes Leman and Lucerne, in the Oberland and at Zermatt.

Riggenbach was the pioneer of these ascension railways, introducing the cog-wheel, perfected later by Abt and Locher.

The first railway opened of the kind was that of the Righi in 1871. Since then various systems have been introduced, namely, on the Brunig. Electricity for the motor is employed on the Gornergrat, Jungfrau, and Stanserhorn.

The steepest grade of this kind of railway is that of the Stanserhorn, 63 per cent. The one reaching to the highest point is the Gornergrat (9,400 feet), which will soon be eclipsed by the Jungfrau (12,000 feet).[1]

For the last half century constant efforts have been attempted in view of shortening the distance to the Orient viâ Europe. The opening of the Gothard line was a masterstroke, thus diverting traffic from the Mont-Cenis. The Simplon was an inevitable consequence. Canton Berne actively promoted the new Loetschberg line and the tunnel now under construction, which is to connect Berne with the Simplon tunnel. Geneva is agitating the new Faucille project.

The following table indicates the various distances—

	Calais-Milan	*Paris-Milan*
Viâ Bernese Alps (by Delle) ..	1,069 km.	844·5 km.
„ Gothard	1,152 „	897 „
„ Frasne-Vallorbe (project) ..	1,099 „	847 „
„ Faucille (project)	1,168 „	870 „

In 1906 a tunnel was opened through the Weissenstein

[1] See Appendix B.

(3,656 metres) thus connecting Moutiers with Solothurn and avoiding a détour by Bienne. This new line shortens the distance between Paris-Berne, viâ Belfort, and Delle and is of international importance, as a means of access to Italy by the Loetschberg. Canton Solothurn is agitating the question of a shorter connecting line from its capital to Berne. Canton Graübunden, and Eastern Switzerland in general, claim their right to an international line, and projects are on foot for direct communication between Coire (Chur) and Chiavenna. The tunnel would be 26 odd kilometres long, half of which would be in Italian territory.

It must not be forgotten that it is not the shortest route that secures the greatest transit of merchandise. The question of rates is imperative. Having contributed enormous sums towards tunnelling the Gothard and the Simplon, Italy now realizes their little importance concerning transit of merchandise and is compelled to seek cheaper methods. The reason for this is the high charges on Swiss railways, the excuse for which is the short distances of transit on their territory. Cereals, which are the leading imports from over the seas, cost in transit 75 per cent. more than by other methods. Thus, although the distance between Antwerp and Rotterdam on the one hand, and Berne and Zurich on the other, is immensely different (twice that between these towns and Genoa), the cost of cereals per ton in the first instance, thanks to navigation on the Rhine, is fr. 21·80 cts. against 25 fr. 10 cts. from Genoa to Berne.

France and Switzerland were unable to agree as to shortening the distance between Paris and the Simplon connection until another conference on the subject was held at Berne in 1909, when a convention, whereby France was to construct the Frasne-Vallorbe short connection between Dijon and Lausanne, was signed.

The present communication between Paris and Geneva is unsatisfactory to a degree; as far as Dijon the P.L.M. main line runs almost direct for Geneva, but to reach it there is a

long détour either south by Bourg and Culoz, or by Pontarlier and Renans (Lausanne). Several projects have been put forward to shorten this distance: the P.L.M. proposes a line avoiding Bourg, and shortening the present route by about fifteen miles. The Swiss line crosses the Jura range at an altitude of over 3,300 feet, and it is proposed to cut out Pontarlier by a new line saving about twelve miles near Vallorbe, and reducing the summit level by about 350 feet. This still leaves the passage of the Jura 650 feet higher than that of the Simplon, which is only about 2,300 feet above sea-level, the Gothard being about 3,750 feet and the Mont Cenis about 4,250 feet. Passengers from Paris to Italy by the Simplon would therefore gain little if they had to cross the Jura at Pontarlier, and on this account, and to avoid the long détours of which we have spoken, an association has been formed to advocate the continuation of the direct Paris-Dijon line forward to Geneva. It has already been carried on to Lons-le Saunier, nearly half the distance, and the scheme put forward by the *Association pour le Percement de la Faucille* proposes to take the line almost in a straight course to Geneva, where it would connect with the present P.L.M. line to the Cornavin station, and crossing this would continue for Carouge and Annemasse, about four miles from Geneva. Here a large entrepôt would be formed for goods, and the station would become an important centre for the various lines which converge there. The highest point on the new line would only be 1,830 feet above the sea. The journey from Paris to Annemasse would be performed in 7½ hours, the distance being reduced from 400 miles by Culoz to 310 miles by the proposed route, and Milan would be reached from Paris in 14½ hours, not counting stoppages. To reduce this line by still further shortening the route, the Association considers that in the future it will be necessary to tunnel Mont-Blanc.

To this project another is opposed, namely tunnelling the Petit Saint-Bernard, the erstwhile Roman highway to Vienna. Considering the enormous outlay and the little benefit to be

derived from the final results, it is hardly likely that either one or the other will be considered for some years to come.

Waterways.

The waterways will always be in favour for transit of merchandise of a certain category owing to the economy realized. Although Switzerland is the hydrographical centre of Europe, 4 per cent. of her area being covered by the waters of her lakes and rivers, the mountainous nature of the soil renders these useless for navigation. A few short canals connect, by the Broye the lakes of Morat and Neuchâtel, by the Thiele the Lakes of Neuchâtel and Bienne; the Aare, as it falls from the latter lake, with Wangen; and the Rhine connects Lake Constance with Schaffhausen.

The large lakes are scenes of busy life. Twenty-five years before the existence of railways steamers plied on Lakes Leman, Constance, Maggiore, and Neuchâtel. At the end of 1906 seventeen of the large lakes had a fleet of 112 steamers, of which thirty-two were propelled by screw, the others by paddles. Lake Leman has twenty-two, and Lake Lucerne seventeen steamers.

The fleet is further increased by the addition of three boats for carrying railway-wagons and sixty-one for goods traffic. It is estimated that six million passengers are carried by the steamers annually.

Previous to the railways, the waterways were used for conveying merchandise. A service of navigation was in existence, not only on the Rhine, from Constance to Bâle, but also on the Thur, and in other parts of the country. The Falls of the Rhine were negotiated by unloading the boat and carrying it to the other side. Navigation was conducted on the down current of the rivers. No attempt was made to go against the stream. At their destination the boats were sold or broken up for firewood. The return journey was done on horseback.

Successful attempts are being made to render the Rhine navigable. As yet the boats proceed up the Rhine only, get as far as Mannheim and Strasburg, and goods have to be

conveyed thence by train to Switzerland. Several tugs with barges have, latterly, successfully done the trip from Strasburg to Bâle. The great impediment to navigation on the upper Rhine are the sand banks which are a danger at low tide. Another drawback are the low stone-bridges at Kehl. The river wants to be carefully dragged. The great opponents of the scheme are the riparian States, the Grand Duchy of Baden and Alsace-Lorraine, that prefer goods traffic being done over the railway lines. A treaty signed at Mannheim declares Rhine navigation free. Switzerland, therefore, is at liberty to do the necessary work at her own expense.

Even under actual circumstances the Rhine is navigable as far as Bâle during 200 days of the year, from April to November, as has been shown by the Knipscheer and Rohrort Cie, subsidized by the city of Bâle.

In order to avoid the period of non-navigability in winter Mr. Gelpke, an engineer, proposes an artificial supply of water during eighty days by a sort of dam and locks below Stein, by which means the waters of Lake Constance would be kept at a uniform level.

The Swiss, full of enterprise, are largely subsidizing these schemes.

In fifty years' time the central part of Europe will be honeycombed with canals. The Wurtemberg Government is considering a plan for connecting Ulm with Lake Constance. Another project is the junction of the Rhine with Lake Leman.

The Postal System.

Switzerland claims to have the most model postal administration. It certainly is one of the most perfect. The central offices in every city are palaces. Architectural beauty and comfort go hand in hand with cleanliness. After Great Britain, this country delivers the largest number of letters per inhabitant of all other States.

The administration undertakes the diligence service in the higher Alps, and all parts where there is no usual means of communication.

BÂLE

Together with Sweden this country tops the list for the number of telephonic messages exchanged.

The Bureau international of the Postal Union is established at Berne. A bulletin in four languages is issued monthly.

The Swiss postal authorities undertake to deliver parcels of goods and collect the value up to 300 francs, charging 10 ctmes. per 10 francs. They carry parcels of one pound weight for 1½d.; from one to two and a half pounds for 2½d.; two and a half to five pounds for 4d. Bills are collected at a nominal rate.

The Swiss Post Office banks your money and gives you a cheque-book. This plan is most convenient for business people, whose drafts when collected are passed to account.

Like England, Switzerland is not a self-sufficing country, but is dependent on her foreign neighbours for her supplies.

The Tariff Question.

There was a time when the country was proud of its free-trade policy, just as it is proud of its democratic liberty; the two principles went hand in hand; they admitted no discussion. But Switzerland renounced long ago all such Utopian ideas. Her budding industries required protection. The notion of a cheap loaf while at the same time her factories were closing was irreconcilable with the common-sense views of the people. Nowadays Switzerland imitates her neighbours. Tariff is a weapon. Any increase in customs is met by an increase on some special import of the country that opens the attack. The walls of protection are being raised higher and higher around all European countries and the United States, and it is left to Great Britain to pursue the Quixotic policy of the open door.

As usual, in the case of any new policy, the separate government system of the cantons proved an obstacle. Each canton imposed its tariff; exacted toll. The general project for a revision of the system was examined in 1875 and was finally adopted in 1884. The government controls the customs at present. The example of Germany, in gradually increasing

tariff rates, began to be followed at this time. By increasing duties on certain imports Switzerland was able to obtain privileges for various of her own specialities from Germany and Austria.

The third revision of tariff, marking a considerable rise all round, was accepted by public vote in 1891, and with the continual increase of duties periodically voted by her neighbours, Switzerland has been obliged again and again to vote further advances. The gradual absorption of certain branches of commerce compelled the federal government to make a further increase in 1902, in view of protecting agriculture. Meat, preserves, artificially-made butter, cheese, wines, and other alimentary produce were taxed at higher rates. There are always standing disputes with Italy over the introduction of her cattle into the country, and now with Germany over flour, that by her favourite system of bounties Germany dumps into the country. This latter question is giving rise to serious trouble between the two countries now. The people clamour for a cheap loaf, while the millers, unable to compete with Germany, ask for protection.

The specification of rateable articles, which at one time numbered 476 lists, now amounts to 1,164. By specializing each article, in imitation of the German method, Switzerland is able to evade the difficulty of the clause of the "most favoured nation" in treaties.

Of Germany's method Senator Hale says, that Germans have become the greatest experts in tariff schedules in the whole world.

The arguments adduced in favour of the constant increase of tariff are the closure of foreign markets for certain produce, such as woollens; the new industries ensuring home produce of hitherto imported goods; a desire to protect agriculture and minor industries, and, lastly, the fact that with a fighting tariff you are able to get better terms for your own exports from other nations.

Swiss territory is divided into six sections for the customs,

the general direction being at Berne. These sections are established at Bâle, Schaffhausen, Coire (Chur), Lugano, Lausanne, and Geneva. Switzerland's last commercial treaty with Great Britain dates from 1855, and she enjoys the advantages of a privileged nation.

Switzerland's imports exceed her exports, in other words she imported (excepting gold and silver) for 1,745 million francs and exported for the value of 1,195 millions in 1910. The reason for this difference is due to the lack of *matières premières* (raw stuff) that must be imported.

The hotel industry, transit, and a few other resources help to make up the difference.

Among the imported matter for textile industries are raw silk, raw cotton, wool, etc. Of the latter 22·6 comes from Australia. Coal is imported from Germany, France and Belgium. Germany supplies 46·3 of iron ore and England 9·7. Of cotton-goods 23·2 come from England, and of imported woollens, Germany 31·2 and England 6·4. Of machinery, Germany supplies 18·9 and England 3·1.

The United States and Great Britain are excellent markets for Switzerland. Of hand and machine-made embroideries the former take 56·9 and England 25·5.

Of silk in the piece England takes 44·5 ; the United States, 17·4 ; France, 20·5 ; and of silk ribbons England takes 38·5.

Switzerland's imports from Great Britain amounted to 84 million francs in 1906 and from Germany 479 millions. Her exports to Britain and colonies in the same year were 178 millions and to Germany 277 millions.

A peculiar customs regime exists in the neighbourhood of Geneva. The inhabitants of Savoy, on either side of the city, occupy a neutralized zone, where no customs duties are paid. This privilege was granted in 1860 at the time when Nice and Savoy came under the domination of France.

The federal government is not altogether satisfied with this regime, inasmuch as it is alleged that it leaves a loophole for smuggling and fraud. It is a serious question of offering

France some compensation in return for the abolition of this system.

The international rôle of Helvetia has for main-spring her neutrality. That neutrality has been guaranteed by the powers. Whether the powers would respect it in time of war remains to be proved. There has been no need to test the principle, thus far. When Bourbaki's army was routed in 1870, the retreating troops on reaching the Swiss frontier were disarmed ; the Franco-German war necessitated the mobilization of part of the Swiss Army.

Swiss Neutrality.

The object of the Vienna Congress in guaranteeing Swiss neutrality was to prevent the little country from forming an alliance with one or other of her neighbours. The key to the Alps in the hands of one of the belligerents, and victory was a foregone conclusion. Switzerland derives an advantage from the agreement inasmuch as she is secure from invasion—so long as the present European equilibrium lasts. Moreover, it is unlikely any power, however much tempted, would conquer it, as it would be practically impossible to hold possession for long.

Switzerland still continued her international rôle in taking the initiative of the Red Cross Society, promoted by a Genevese, Henri Dunant who, in his old age, was the recipient of the Nobel Prize.

The idea originated with a graphic description of the battle of Solferino, by Dunant, which concluded with suggestions as to the care of the wounded in time of war. The following year, an international committee, under the presidency of General Dufour, was formed and on August 22nd, 1864, a general Convention was signed.

Until the foundation of the Hague Tribunal, cases of arbitration were submitted to Swiss decision.

Every summer sees a renewal of international congresses, held in various cities, when religious and economic questions are debated.

Banking.

It is a singular fact that there is little gold currency in Switzerland, although through its monetary convention with the Latin Union it has the privilege of minting gold pieces. This circumstance is ascribed to a too plentiful emission of paper by the various cantonal banks authorized to issue banknotes. An inquiry resulted in the discovery that there was more gold circulating in the cantons that issued less paper.

Until 1850 each canton minted its own coin and at that date a general understanding was arrived at between the leading banks in view of a uniform system. In 1864 twenty banks issuing notes had in circulation notes to the value of 15·7 millions of francs on a paid-up capital of 53·6 millions. The usage of a uniform currency led to financial operations between Switzerland and her neighbours. The Franco-German war in 1870 had a disastrous influence upon the market. Money ceased to circulate and species had to be imported at tariffed rates. This was a consequence of the over-issue of paper. Legislation had to intervene. Banks were compelled to have a 40 per cent. cover of their issue in bullion and the rest in portfolio. Other reforms have been introduced, and finally a National Bank was founded in 1905, and commenced operations in 1907. The capital is 50 millions of francs divided into 100,000 shares of 500 francs, subscribed two-fifths by the cantons, one-fifth by the banks, and the rest by the public, the shareholders being of Swiss nationality. Three years are given to the other banks to withdraw their notes from circulation.

The National Bank is authorized by law to issue banknotes; discount local and foreign bills on a term not exceeding three months, and bearing the signature of two solvable persons; advance money on deeds and shares on a three months' basis; receive deposits without payment of interest (government funds) and collect commercial bills; purchase for temporary use the bank's funds, government bonds or cantonal or foreign bonds to bearer and readily realizable;

deal in bullion and silver; and take up government and cantonal loans.

The Bank is obliged to make and receive payments on account of the government without remuneration and to accept the deposit and attend to operations of bonds belonging to the State.

The work of the Bank thus far has proved a remunerative undertaking. To give other details relative to guarantees and working of the National Bank would require several pages of this book. In regard to the scarcity of gold in circulation no one has thought to explain it by the fact that the Confederation has a war-chest (treasure) to keep up.

With the intense commercial activity, the "Industrie des Etrangers," banking-business is very productive. The federal census in 1905 showed a total of 805 banks, savings-banks and brokers employing a total of 6,590 persons, of whom 334 were females. There existed twelve official pawnbrokers.

In view of favouring the cheque system the Confederation established post-office banking in 1906. Funds are received on deposit, commercial drafts are collected without cost within the frontier boundaries. The depositor must always have a minimum of 100 francs to account. An interest is allowed of 1·8 per cent. per annum.

The result of the first two years' operations proved most satisfactory. The number of depositors at the end of 1907 was 4,006. In 1906, 263,642 cheques were cashed, and the capital handled amounted to 451,031,762 francs, of which 91 millions represented transfers. At the end of 1906 the average amount per depositor in hand was 2,040 francs. The average deposit was 141 francs, the average payment by till or bureau 1,859 francs. The official figures for 1911 were as follows: Receipts, 1,555,451 francs; and expenses, 988,093 francs.

At the end of 1911 Switzerland had minted for 130 million francs of gold coins, and for 55,230,000 francs of five franc and

smaller silver coins, 11,850,000 for 20, 10 and 5 centimes nickels, and 1,135,000 fr. of bronze of 1 and 2 centimes.

MONETARY CIRCULATION OF THE PRINCIPAL STATES

	Gold	*Silver*	*Total*	*Per inhabitant in frs.*
France	4·841,5	2·100	6·941,5	178 ,,
United States ..	6·602	3·396	9·998	125 ,,
Germany.. ..	4·007	1·043	5·050	80·31
Great Britain ..	2·652	579	3·231	75·14
Switzerland ..	95	44	139	40 frs.
Austria	1·434	396	1·830	39·78
Russia	3·968	509	4·477	37·30
Italy	705,5	184	889,5	26·16

(In millions of francs)

The federal department opened an inquiry on January 23rd, 1905, to ascertain the amount of money in circulation. The object was to see the amount of cash in hand, in 4,923 establishments designated for the purpose on the evening of the appointed day. The 40 per cent. reserve fund in the banks was not calculated, being represented by notes in circulation.

It was shown that there were 62 millions of francs in notes, 22½ millions of gold, 18 millions of five franc pieces, 3 millions of small silver, and 876,000 francs of nickels and bronze.

The proportion of foreign coins, authorized by the Latin Union, in circulation in the country, is very high.

The Latin Decimal Union is considering various modifications to the rules. The most important one is the increase of coins, the issue of which will be increased gradually from 7 to 16 francs per inhabitant. The experience of Italy and Switzerland shows, however, that a separate coinage, as in German States, would better answer the requirements of Switzerland.

The Army.

The military system that prevails in Switzerland has been the subject of much speculation in other countries, and particularly so in Great Britain, where it is a serious question of introducing the same organization in order to obviate conscription. The Swiss Army is a citizen force, emanating from the nation. The periods at which the Switzer must do duty are not long,

but extend over a number of years, practically the prime of life of man.

The system is constantly undergoing modification; but the fundamental principle does not vary. It is a question of extending the time of service during the earlier period and reducing it as the citizen grows older.

A new law reorganizing certain details was passed on April 12th, 1907.

The qualifications of each man are utilized when he takes service under the white-cross flag. The civil engineer becomes a military engineer, and the butcher or baker would be drafted into the commissariat department.

The Swiss Army is essentially a defensive and not an offensive or attacking force.

The 18th article of the Constitution decrees that every Swiss must perform military service; all brothers in a family are compelled to serve, and even supporters of a family are not exempted.

There are certain officials who are exonerated: Members of the Federal Assemblies, when sitting; members of the government; the clergy when not serving as army chaplains; doctors and officials of public hospitals, directors and warders of prisons, post and telegraphy employés, frontier guards.

The Confederation refunds to cantons the three-quarters of outlay involved in replacing public-school teachers when called upon to do duty as non-commissioned or commissioned officers for instruction.

Swiss residing abroad and showing valid reasons why they are unable to do duty are exempt and subject to an annual tax. This money is shared proportionally between the Confederation and the cantons. This tax varies, according to the social status of the citizen, from 6 francs to 3,000 francs.

A Swiss soldier answers to the call every two years during a period of ten years. The first year, as a recruit, his term of training is 60 days for the line; 90 for cavalry; 75 for

artillery; and during the third, fifth, seventh, and ninth years he does from 12 to 15 days' duty.

The military forces are divided into three distinct classes: the Elite or active army, in which all citizens are liable to serve from the age of 20 to 32; the Landwehr or first reserve, composed of men from the age of 32 to 40; and the Landsturm, consisting of men from 17 to 52, not incorporated in the Elite or Landwehr. This last reserve cannot, as a rule, be called upon for service beyond the frontier.

The entire strength of the Swiss Army was, in 1911, 142,054. The forces are composed as follows—

Corps d'Etat Major.. ..	1,686
Infantry	94,957
Cavalry	5,454
Artillery	15,930
Engineers	5,926
Sanitary corps	5,741
[1] Administration	945

The statistics given in 1903 show that the number of recruits examined was 33,667, out of which 12,067 were considered unfit for service, 5,098 sent back for a year or two, and 16,494, otherwise 40 per cent., accepted as fit.

The importance of the artillery corps, in so mountainous a country, is thoroughly comprehensible, just as the same reason explains the few cavalry regiments.

The Swiss undergoes regular training from his schooldays, so that it would be an improper term to say that he is a raw recruit. As the Swiss citizen knows that his object in becoming a soldier has nothing aggressive, but the protection of his fatherland, he cheerfully undertakes the duties imposed upon him.

Recruits on joining the ranks undergo a *pedagogique* examination. This enables the authorities to ascertain the degree of instruction attained by the youth of the country. Such

[1] To these are added other corps—Aviation, Alpines', and Cyclists' —numbering 10,415.

recruits found to be illiterate are required to undergo instruction at the recruits' school, and the odium attendant upon this is found to exercise a marked beneficial effect on the education of the peasantry. The only permanent corps is that of the military instructors.

The Swiss soldier only receives pay during the period he serves under the colours.

The government has the right of appointing officers who are drawn from the ranks according to seniority. Your hotel-keeper is a colonel, or your furniture-dealer a captain. I should add that the cantonal government appoints officers up to the grade of Commandant de Bataillon.

The army authorities have considered the arming of the entire forces with a new rifle as imperative. It has been decided to manufacture 45,000 new rifles, as well as provide 140 million of the new cartridges. The bill for this reform is expected to total at no less than 15,710,000 francs, an immense sum given the size and importance of the country.

Trials of a new uniform are being made. A company of 180 men has been told off for this purpose. Three sections will wear the new styles, two with dark-green lapels, one with scarlet; two others with white, and another with brass buttons. The fourth section will be dressed in the 1908 uniform.

Various styles of uniform are recommended from time to time. During the Transvaal War it was a serious question of adopting khaki and the felt-hat, but these, it was thought afterwards, would hardly be compatible with the climate and characteristics of the country.

The officers show a preference for the German cap, and are ambitious to wear the frock-coat.

It has been a question of adopting the helmet for the infantry, made of celluloid covered with leather, and a removable neck-protector.

Also a light mantle in case of wet weather. The tunic and pants to be of a neutral tint, grey or green. The lower part

COL. SCHAECK (MILITARY AERONAUT)

of the pants to be large with buttons so as to enable the soldier to tighten them and wear cloth leggings.

Several new models of knapsacks have been proposed; a Tyrolean one with coat of hair; another of waterproof canvas. Cartridge cases holding four charges and separate cases for hatchet and spade, with open-work so as to lighten the weight, are suggested.

Switzerland, in the centre of Europe, a country of mountain-passes and valleys, occupies a unique strategical position. The power holding the country would be master of the situation in time of war. As it is not possible to build a high wall round it, the neighbouring powers are fortifying the most dangerous passes. Germany is the most enterprising of them all. Fortifications have been erected right up to the Bâle frontier, and Germany is anxious that Switzerland should continue the line right into the country.

The Gothard and Saint Maurice are fortified camps, while Germany would view with complacency the fortifying of Jolimont, a place between Neuchâtel and Bienne lakes, thus to raise a barrier on the western side of Bienne to Yverdon.

Batteries should be erected on the rocks at Saint Blaise, thus to command the road to Neuchâtel. Other armoured forts at Sonceboz, on Mont Chamblon, to cover the Sainte Croix roads, on the Mauremont, Créssier, etc.

This constant solicitude as to the defences of Switzerland on the part of Germany excites no enthusiasm in the bosom of the Switzer.

The American Army possesses a distinguished general of Swiss birth, General Fréderic Tschudi, born at Glarus, who is Commander-in-Chief of the Pennyslvania district.

The Press.

The Swiss are a great reading people, that is if one may judge by the numbers of booksellers, the quantity of small papers and periodicals published, and the French and German papers circulating in the country, which latter are the staple fare for news and literature.

Curious to say, having no theatre of their own, the Switzers are nurtured on foreign productions, in opera, drama, comedy, etc. This is the case with literature. Switzerland in the circumstances is analogous with the provinces of France and Germany.

It goes without saying that Switzerland has its Press, which hardly rises above the provincial Press in other countries.

The newspapers, as a matter of course, deal with local politics, and relate local events. In their leaders European politics are discussed with all the gravity of the *Times* or the *Temps*.

The best edited newspapers represent the conservative interests and the intellectual classes. They are a dam against the rising tide of popular papers that pervert public taste by their cheap novelettes, the local *cancans* they open their columns to, and their generally trivial style. These superior papers have not a very large circulation, being dearer than the popular organs. They prove their utility whenever the government has a grave matter to lay before the public, as these journals appear to be the only ones having a staff competent enough to deal with abstruse questions. Such was the case when it was a question of preparing opinion at home and abroad on the subject of the purchase by the State of the Gothard railway, and also in the recent case of the Conference between France and Switzerland relative to the railway connections between the former country and the Simplon. Naturally, in the case of national matters of this kind, the other papers follow suit.

The *Journal de Genève* is the type of literary journal, as are also the *Bund*, *Zuricher Zeitung*, and *Basler Nachrichten*. These journals publish leaders on foreign politics, besides giving a great deal of foreign news. You may be certain that all questions of national interest are treated with a master-hand.

The patriotism of the Swiss is intense, overpowering. They have not the resource of the cult of royalty as in England.

Their divinities are their heroes who helped to found the Republic, and their newspapers do not fail in their mission to sound the patriotic note with a fervour that surprises the foreigner, who thinks that such accepted and indisputable facts of history do not require to be harped upon until one is satiated. Possibly, patriotism has to be kept up at white heat and it finds an outlet in the newspapers, just as in processions with flag unfurled, at every moment. This persistent and uninterrupted sounding of the patriotic note, not merely by allusions in every article in the Press, but by all other available means, has gained for the Switzer, through superficial observers, tourists and others, the reputation of the simple Swiss. I must apologize for my apparent irreverence ; but long years of residence in all parts of the country have somewhat blunted my enthusiasm.

Does this fervid patriotism account for a certain spirit of intolerance ? Perhaps it does, added to the fact that the foreigner is everywhere; that is to say, the foreigner earning a living, and consequently the enemy. No small wonder then that a feeling of comfort is engendered by constantly dwelling upon the noble deeds of ancestors or the great virtues of the republican regime. This characteristic may be a vestige of the fast vanishing puritanical spirit that once was rampant and which still finds expression among the old Genevese families. The organ of these families, irreverently called " momiers " (another word for expressing Protestant bigotry or Protestant Jesuitism), is the *Journal de Genève.*

Chauvinism.

This Chauvinist spirit is carefully nurtured in the minds of the youth by the school books of the country. Switzerland is the " flambeau " of virtue and liberty ; other countries are naturally in no way comparable for civic virtue. A glance at the school books, wherein, by the way, the Swiss are always victorious in battle, never once suffering defeat, put into children's hands, is sufficiently edifying. Such a haughty Chauvinist spirit might be better understood were the hated

stranger forbidden entry to the country; but while such efforts are made to attract families for the education of their children, it appears singular that the very books intended to form the young foreigners' minds are those in which their native lands are decried and belittled. The stolid belief in their own superiority is such that Swiss teachers think nothing of this. The argument is always the same: You come to our country because it is the finest in creation; you come to our schools because they are the most perfect. Wherefore then this morbidness because your country is rightly or wrongly described?

It happens that the American Colony at Geneva, whose members happen to be as patriotic as regards their country as the Swiss are, decline to be convinced by similar arguments.

A most energetic protest has been made against the mischievous teachings of a geography, the concoction of Professor Rosier, now chief of the Geneva Department of Education, in which the people and their country are described in the Swiss fashion.

"The Yankee is rough and his manners are often shocking. If he insists on being entirely free he is not disposed to accord freedom to others. He treats the Indian and negro harshly. Americans are trying to eclipse Europeans, and at times succeed in raising sky-scrapers of 15, 20, to 50 floors in New York and Chicago. Beauty is not synonymous with size, and their buildings are commonplace and in bad taste. The Yankee's greatest drawback is his love of lucre. Fortunes are made in no time and by none too respectable methods. . ."

As the American residents rightly argue, a geography is not a book of observation intended for the adult mind. Not only is such sort of instruction offensive to the young American called upon to study from official books; but it tends to pervert and poison the mind of Swiss children, who start in life with a prejudiced idea of Americans. But so stodgy is the Swiss that you will never get him to see it in this light.

If I appear to be critical about the "simple faith" of the

Switzers, no one is more impressed than I by the grandeur of the heroes of their history, whose names are given to their principal streets and lake-steamers; by the grand lesson of independence taught by the oath of the Grütli; the heroic resistance and death of Winkelried, the story of William Tell, which has cast a beautiful halo of romance and glory over Switzerland, and the many other glorious episodes associated with history. So imbued am I with this reverent sentiment that I would not follow the example of certain learned men, and among these several Swiss, who by research and analysis seek to destroy the legend of Tell and the apple, immortalized by Schiller and Rossini.

Hero-worship.

Merely as a document I relate the arguments adduced by the opponents of the legend. It was in 1420, more than a hundred years after the emancipation of Schwytz, of Uri, and of Unterwald, that the first reference to the legend appeared in the *National Chronicle* of Conrad Justinger, secretary to the Berne Council. In the relation of the uprising of the three cantons against the Austrian bailiffs, no mention is made of Tell. The first mention is found in a German ballad in 1470. This popular song is merely the transposition, to Swiss soil, of the story of a Danish archer named Tokko, written in Latin by a chronicler who lived one hundred years previous to the foundation of the Swiss Confederation.

The Tell Legend.

In those early ages each forest canton created its own legend of tyrants and heroes. Unterwald imagined the bailiff of Landesberg and Arnold of Melchthal, Schwytz and Uri; while Uri invented the story of Gessler, Stauffacher, Walter Fürst, and William Tell.

About the year 1480 Melchior Russ of Lucerne, composed a story recounting what happened to William Tell on the lake. Herein is told the whole story of the archer, leaping on to the famous rock known as Tellsplatte and darting his arrow at the tyrannic bailiff.

Later on a chronicler of Saarnen recounted the story of Tell's refusal to take off his hat to the tyrant, the consequent apple incident, and the killing of Gessler in the Höhle Gasse at Küssnacht. Thus the legend became a matter of history. How is it possible to entertain a doubt ? The lake and the rock are there as mute witnesses.

Guillimann himself, a Swiss historian, declared in 1607, that the patriotic tradition is a mere fable.

Fifty years later, Freudenburg published a pamphlet entitled, " William Tell, a Danish Fable." The government of Uri had it publicly burnt.

In 1890 the magistrates of Canton Schwytz decided that the legend and the name of William Tell should be struck out of all school books.

Notwithstanding argument and proof the Swiss held to their legend, and far be it from my wish to destroy it. The question arises : Does the hero really less exist in the souls of the people, whether in reality or not he existed in flesh and blood ? Peoples are in need of glorious illusion, and as well try to destroy those legends dear to the souls of Englishmen, of King Canute or King Alfred, or of the Knights of the Round Table, as attempt to prove that William Tell was merely a myth.

But to return to the newspapers. As each canton has its own particular characteristics, politics, and often language, so each one has its special papers, and each political party its organ. In Vaud the *Gazette de Lausanne* represents the intellectual classes. There are other papers such as the *Nouvelliste, Tribune, Feuille d'Avis,* etc.

Party Journals.

The *Bund* of Berne is the official government organ and the *Tagblatt* represents the Conservative party. The *Neue Zuricher Zeitung* is the leading organ of Canton Zurich. The *Anzeiger* has a large popular circulation.

La Tribune de Genève (non-political) supplies general information from all parts of the world. Two other popular dailies

of Geneva are *La Suisse*, and the *A.B.C.* The latter is illustrated.

The Swiss are great advertisers, their journals having several columns of advertisements, a further proof of commercial enterprise. There exist, from time immemorial, daily publications containing the official State records as well as pages of all classes of advertisements. These are the *Feuilles d'Avis* or *Offizieller Anzeiger*, and are humorously called the bible of the housewife, because they are the key to all local gossip. The classified advertisements are so cheap that you can advertise for a servant for twopence. The wording of some of the advertisements leads to many amusing *quid pro quos*. A translation is difficult.

" Mme. Compostoni informs that she continues her engagements for ' soirées and weddings on the piano or small orchestra.' "

" English lady is willing to take charge of a few children and show them her tongue."

" For want of room, to be sold, twenty hens that will be laying next month, as well as a fine pair of ducks with swan's down."

" The person who carried off the canary on Thursday from the third floor, Nr. 3, rue de la Fontaine, is requested to bring it back to the fourth floor, same staircase, if he does not want to incur unpleasantness in the street."

" For an amateur ! A family cage having several compartments with the father, mother, and three little ones running on the perches."

Each canton has its literary and illustrated publications. Two of the latter, of entirely Swiss character, are *La Patrie Suisse*, and *Die Schweiz*. *La Semaine Littéraire* and *l'Echo des Alpes* deal with literary subjects and fiction.

The Swiss journalists have their association. An annual containing all particulars concerning the newspapers and other publications is issued.

Flora.

The Flora of the Alps, a fascinating subject, differs little in character, whether we find it in the Swiss, the French or the Austrian Alps. It is a world of its own, varying in richness and beauty according to altitude.

The most popularly known flower is the Alpine rose, which is found at an altitude of 4,200 to 7,500 feet. The hairy specimen opens earlier than the rusty leaved, being a rock plant, preferring a chalk soil. The corolla is rather more lightly coloured. The other specimen grows on peat, especially on the primary formations. These flowers, of a deep crimson, bordering on purple at times, are gathered and offered to tourists for sale. They will be found in all the flower markets.

Next in order of popularity comes the edelweiss, easily recognized by its white, hairy, cloth-like heads. That which looks like a large flower on the end of a stalk is in reality a very composite structure. It consists of many-flowered heads, whose white woolly, radially-arranged bracts imitate a flower, in order to attract insects. It grows on rocky slopes, especially on chalk, and is found at an altitude of 6,000 to 10,000 feet.

Being a marketable article for ornamenting Alpine hats it is imitated, "made in Germany," out of cloth.

The genus anemone belongs to the family of the crow foot (*Ranunculaceæ*) from which it is distinguished by there being no calix but only sepals and petals, which are the same colour.

Of the various species there are the narcissus flower, white on the inner surface, but outside often tinged with red. The Alpine anemone flower is white inside, the outside, especially in the bud, is tinged with blue.

The yellow anemone is a yellow-flowering form of the white anemone, growing on the primary formations. It is found as low down as 4,000 feet.

The spring anemone is characterized by its long glittering tufts of hair which cover the outside of the flower. It belongs to the spring flowers of the Alpine Flora, which bloom immediately after the snow has melted.

The hardy perennial gentian belongs to a numerous family. Besides the flowering shoots of the spring genus are those which produce flowers the next year. They are found on marshy meadows and on Alpine pastures.

In the family of gentian are the short-leaved, the stemless, the carved, the slender, the fringed, the field, the German, etc.

Of the species of saxifrage there is the white mountain one. The leaves are sharply serrated, and bear on their margins white chalk scales.

The grey saxifrage's leaves are smooth, thick, blunt, bluish, three-edged. The lower ones are bent downwards, and at their tips is a gland which secretes chalk.

We have the purple saxifrage, marked by the densely arranged, imbricated, opposite, thickish blue-green leaves and the wine-red flowers. The two-flowered, the rough, the moss-like, the evergreen, the star (leafless stem, petals white with two orange-yellow spots), the changeable, the flat-leaved, etc.

In the thirty odd kinds of Alpine flowers and plants cultivated the most rare are the " Schneehälschen," or Flora of the snow valleys, which grow in the small hollows where the sun has not melted the snow away and the ground is saturated with ice-cold water. After the melting of the snow a blackish earth is left proceeding from the mineral dust and organic detritus which have collected on the snow.

The arctic polytrichum usually appears as the pioneer of vegetation in such localities, and the ground is spread with a dense, soft, dark-green carpet of moss. Soon afterwards the two-flowered sandwort (*arenaria biflora*) makes its appearance with delicate shoots, its slender stems and small roundish leaves are half hidden in the moss, so that the pretty stellular flowers seem to be scattered over the green carpet as if by chance, an affecting sight in the solitude of the high Alps. Next the creeping, radiating beds of the three-styled Alpine chickweed (*cerastium trigynum*) associate themselves with these two plants ; here and there the small trusses of

the Alpine meadow-cresses appear singly above the moss. Later on, the dwarf cudweed (*gnuphalium supinum*) makes itself seen, or the long red, creeping shoots of the five-leaved ladies' mantle become interlaced, so as to form connected masses.

The hardy species of orchids that grow in the Alps are an interesting study. They are richly coloured and exhale, particularly of an evening, a very strong odour.

In the family of Alpine orchids are the white coeloglossum, known by its small white flowers, the slightly trisected lip, the short spur, and the digitate root-bulbs; the scented gymnadenia, the fragrant orchis, the narrow-leaved nigritella (characterized by its strong scent, resembling that of vanilla); the dwarf orchis, whose flower-head appears as if its upper part had been scorched.

The crow foots (*genus ranunculus*), to which belong the mountain buttercup, the glacier crow foot, the aconite; the Parnassus-leaved crow foots have an acrid sap, often poisonous, and therefore form bad food for cattle. The flowers have numerous stamens, having their insertion on the axis of the flower, not on the calix; the carpels are also numerous and separate, forming in the middle of the flower a small green knob.

Bell-flowers and rampions (family of *campanulaceæ*) include the spiked (the only yellow bell-flower), the bearded, the dwarf, etc. The blossoms are regular, with five sepals, a gamopetalous five-lobed corolla and five stamens: the ovary is below the calix, the style which resembles a cylindrical brush is divided in the upper part in two—five branches that bear stigma-papillae on their inner surface. The transference of the pollen to these papillae is effected by means of honey-sucking insects.

Primula and androsace are very varied. The bird's-eye, or mealy primrose, takes its Latin, German, and French names from the easily-removed wax coating on the underside of the leaves, which appear as if sprinkled with flour.

THE MATTERHORN

The aconitum (monk's-hood) belongs to the family of *ranunculaceæ.* The monk's-hoods are dependent on the humble bee for the fertilization of their flowers and, therefore, also for the formation of their seeds. The geographical distribution of this flower is therefore strictly limited by the haunts of the bee. The species includes the yellow wolf's bane, the panicled and common monk's-hood.

Numerous Alpine plants form thick cushions that often attain a foot in diameter, covered with blossoms. In this category are the Alpine forget-me-not, hairy sand-wort, imbricated androsace, cushion-silene, etc.

As may be supposed, shrubs, grasses and medicinal herbs grow in profusion in the Alpine regions. Among the former are the crowberry, producing a blackish berry; the Alpine bear-berry; the bilberry or whortleberry; the creeping azalea, a small creeping shrub forming clumps, often covering boulders with intertwined masses, and growing at an altitude of 6,000 feet, seldom lower down. Then we have the Mezereum Daphne (spurge-olive) with red poisonous berries, which grows amongst Alpine roses; the blue-fruited honeysuckle; the reticulated willow (a small low-growing shrub forming cushions), the thyme-leaved, the herbaceous and blunt-leaved willow, and the white dryas, a dwarf plant belonging to the rose family but with eight petals.

Among the tall herbaceous species are the Alpine lily, with its snow-white flower-cups, one of the most glorious and rare ornaments of the mountains of Central Europe; Jacob's ladder, which has a peculiar odour resembling that of black-currants; wood crane's-bill and wood-geranium.

With the mention of the Alps one naturally recalls the vision of the picturesque personality of the Alpine climber.

Alpinism.

'The Alpine climber belongs to a world of his own. He looks with scorn upon the perfumed fashionable tourists who admire the Jungfrau from the Höheweg at Interlaken, or the Pilatus from the National Quay at Lucerne. He is of a retiring disposition,

feeling himself at home only when on the high mountains among kindred spirits, guides, porters, etc. His dream is the scaling of impossible peaks ; his passion is speleology, the exploration of crevices, couloirs, or to be crawling up the vertical sides of a precipice. And, indeed, the true Alpinist must look down upon the fashionables who have caused a revolution in tourist-traffic in Switzerland, where, in place of the cheerful country inn with its homely fare in the secluded valleys and on the heights, the palace hotel rears its gaudy splendour, in singular discord with the surrounding sublime scenery. Owing to the influx of the fashionable element that does its touring with graceful ease, the best known summits, such as the Righi, Pilatus, Rochers de Naye, and Stanserhorn, are not without their cog-wheel railway, and what is more deplorable even the glorious ice giants, such as the Wetterhorn, Cervin, and Jungfrau are threatened with a similar disfigurement.

True the protest against the projected railway on the Matterhorn, signed by hundreds of thousands of people, who to their eternal honour, be it said, raised no uncertain note against this desecration of Nature, proves that there are still not wanting people in Switzerland who are unwilling to sacrifice everything to the speculators' lust of gain.

Have you ever seen the dead-tired Alpinist, after an exhausting tour in the higher regions, arrive at one of the palace hotels? No; then you do not know the utmost limit of human suffering. What does the tourist want? A warm meal, for probably he has not tasted a bit of warm food the whole day. What does he find? Marble floors on which he slips with his hob-nailed boots ; a luxurious dining-room, ladies and gentlemen in evening dress, who turn up their noses if he should venture to take a place at the table d'hôte beside them, and draw back in disgust at the sight of his dusty clothes. And then an endless dinner of eleven courses, during which he falls half asleep with fatigue, and all, to the smallest waiter, think it quite allowable to treat him with disdain.

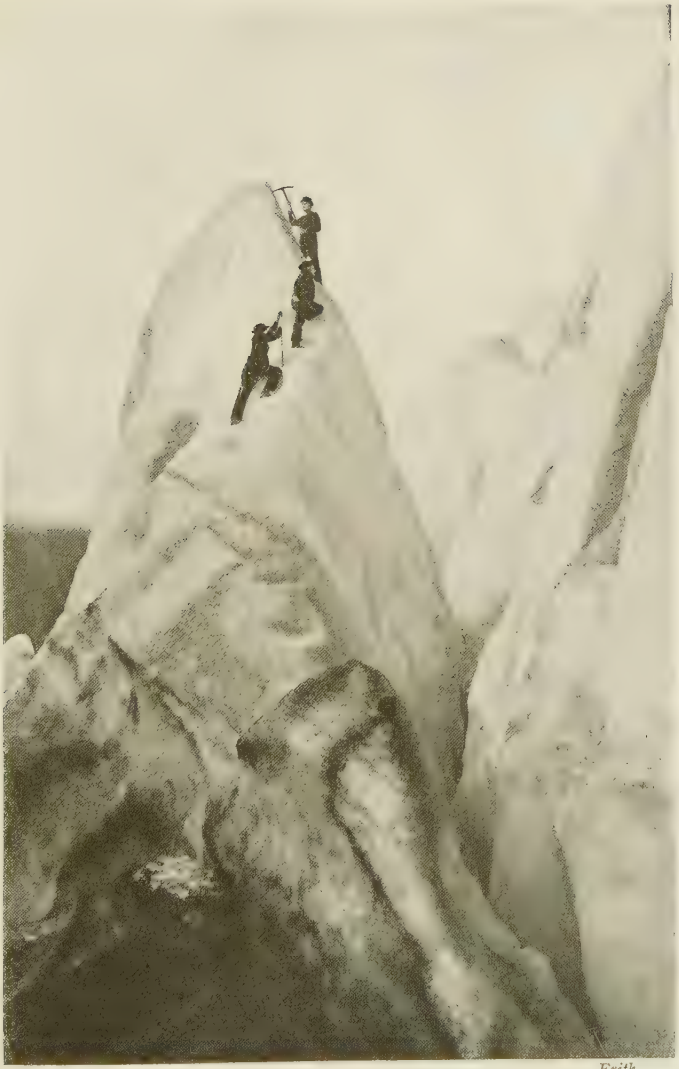


Photo by *Frith*

GLACIER DES BOSSONS PYRAMID, CHAMOUNIX

But when the moment comes to settle his bill and tip the attendants, the class distinction suddenly disappears. He must not only pay the same as the others, but even much more, for very often the price in such hotels for supper and room is higher than that paid by boarders for the whole day. It is, of course, quite right that a boarder who binds himself for a certain time should have a reduction of prices. But must the difference be so very disproportionate ? We think not.

Is it then astonishing that under these circumstances the Alpinist, feeling himself "done" and out of place, turns his steps to the other countries ?

A short time ago the Austrian Alps were lacking precisely in that comfort and ease which the Swiss offer in superabundance. There were parts of Styria, Carinthia, and Salzburg where one might have walked for days without seeing anything more ambitious than a little country inn. That is all changed now. The Austrian Alps are awaking from their sleep. Railways, good roads for motoring, good hotels are being constructed and the tourist traffic is increasing from year to year with amazing rapidity.

And here the Alpinist is not looked down on, but heartily greeted by an unspoiled population. He is the master.

There are, of course, in the more frequented places, especially in the Tyrol, also fashionable hotels; but here, too, he is a welcome guest, for the residents, even those belonging to the most aristocratic circles, lead while there a simple, homely existence, glad to be free for a time from the ceremony and restraint of town life. And the young ladies do not object to give their hand for a dance to the tourist, even though the cloth of his coat be not of the finest.

Swiss hotel life with its indispensable table d'hôte is almost unknown, each guest chooses on the bill of fare the dishes he prefers.

It will be evident that this system is just what suits the Alpinist best. But it is on the highest summits that the

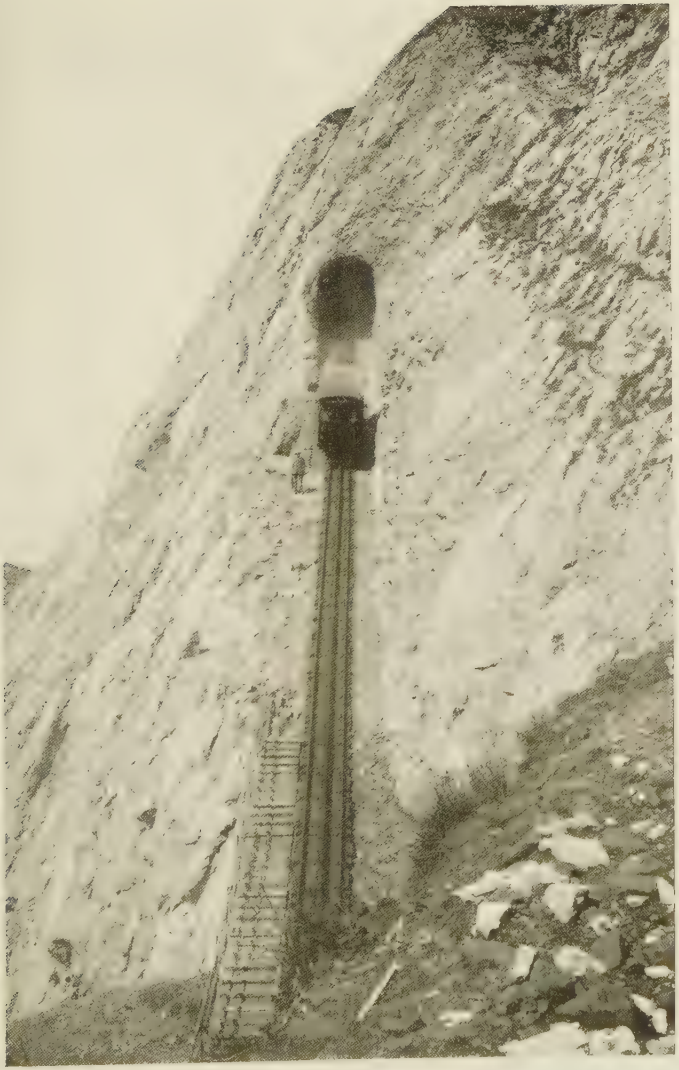
contrast between the Austrian Alps and the Swiss is the most striking. Instead of the palace hotel, the Austrian tourist finds everywhere good Schutzhütten (shelters) where prices are moderate, for they are all the property of the German and Austrian Alpine Club (Deutscher und Oesterreichischer Alpenverein). They are for the benefit of the tourist and not of the speculator.

The cheery, snug life in one of these *hütten* has a singular charm. All class distinctions are laid aside for the time and the company forms but one family, of which the members are true lovers of nature. The comfortless Swiss Alpine shelters, only intended for the few who attain the very highest summits, cannot be compared with these.

It is easily comprehensible that the development of the Austrian Alps offers a real danger to the Swiss, as they are the paradise of the true Alpinist.

The Alpinist is a being apart, then, whose needs require careful studying. Rightly, too, he claims a certain superiority, because to become a true Alpinist a certain curriculum must be gone through. Alpinism has its technical side; it is a science, and the mountaineers of the Alps, in their collaboration with the enterprising and intelligent tourist, have mastered quite a " technique," the theories of which are the foundation of the Alpine climber's education.

The " technique " of Alpinism is, to begin with, the art of walking and climbing in the mountains. Alpinism in certain instances is considered as a sport. The greater the arduous feat, the greater the glory. In some cases the laurels are easily gathered—simply by having the names of certain peaks burnt into an alpenstock. It is difficult to divine the incentive that guides the majority of climbers. Instinct goes for a good deal. The lover of walking wants to go further and higher. In some cases it is the eternal desire of man to triumph over nature. Théophile Gautier, writing from Zermatt in 1881, said that the struggle of man with the mountain is poetic and noble. There must be something inspiring in it,



RAILWAY, MT. PILATUS

otherwise men would not expose themselves to such awful fatigue and danger. Mummery, in his apology for the hair-brained climber, considers that the pride of overcoming insurmountable difficulties adds to his enjoyment of the crags and peaks to which he is at times suspended.

To men of science a technical knowledge of the Alps and the way to conquer them is necessary, in order to carry out their astronomical mission—Janssen, Vallot, Lugeon, Kilian, etc., whose scientific observations have enriched the world.

The need of technique is imperatively proved, from the fact that in Alpine ascensions nothing must be left to chance, a thorough schooling is therefore needful. In the event of a fatal accident to a guide, one must be prepared to proceed alone. A striking proof is the case of Major Hill, whose marvellous descent, after the fatal accident that occurred to his fellow-climbers and guides in 1899, is still memorable. After the accident he continued alone the ascension of the Dent Blanche, climbing a peak that has never since been ascended; and descending by the usual way was obliged to camp in the snow, without provisions, in a storm, and again the following day at the foot of the mountain, reaching Zermatt the day after.

Of course, the *sine quâ non* of Alpinism is to be physically fit; above all, have a sound heart and good respiratory organs. Alpinism demands character and strength of mind. Professor Lortet's advice to those in need of regaining lost strength, who are exhausted by overwork, to those who still love beautiful nature, the calm and solitude, is to take the mountaineer's alpenstock and climb to the higher altitudes and breathe in freedom the pure air of the glaciers and forests. If they do not come back healthier and happier, let them give up all medical treatment, for theirs is a hopeless case.

Thorough physical training is necessary, by proper dieting and by taking gymnastic exercise, in order to be fit to stand the strain and fatigue of climbing. Then the all-important question of equipment arises. In regard to dress many

tourists wear the reefer with pleats and a belt, with or without a waistcoat underneath. This coat is not bad, but is not convenient to wear open in case of warm weather. Trousers are not comfortable wearing as the bottoms drag in the mud or pick up the dust. Knickers and stockings are then preferable. Skins are not advisable as material for clothes, as once wet they dry very slowly, consequently, the Tyrolean shorts are not suitable wear. The Tyroleans wear their knickers short leaving the knees bare. This style does not suit the lay tourist, because the knees are exposed to the burning sun and may come into contact with the sharp edges of the rock when climbing. A Tam O'Shanter for the head and a sweater instead of a waistcoat will be found practical wearing. The legs should be swathed with a strip of cloth so as to preserve them when walking on the snow. The thick woollen stockings of the Tyrolean are much worn. Warm gloves are indispensable, even in summer, when one gets to the higher regions. A light waterproof mantle is sometimes worn ; not, however, by the experienced climber, inasmuch as impedimenta should be avoided, as it happens that when negotiating a nasty passage, portable articles must be left behind, and this necessitates returning by the same way. A plaid shawl may be strapped over the shoulders. This serves as a wrap of a night at the huts.

The Alpinist has to be provided with various articles that will go into his pockets or into his knapsack. First of all his porte-monnaie, his pocket-book, agenda for notes, pencils, pocket-knife with corkscrew, watch and chain, his maps and guide-book. If a climb of importance is intended he must have a barometer, a compass, spectacles for the ice, a pocket pharmacy and a drinking cup. A good length of rope is taken along by one of the party, a folding lantern with candle and matches also. A " Steigeisen " is often useful in crossing the snow.

For climbing rocks canvas shoes with cord soles (Kletterschuhe) are often worn. But this kind of foot covering is

not suitable for the snow or wet places. Of course, all wear the iron-clamped boots. The *piolet* is obligatory. It is one of the essentials in climbing. Many tourists are provided with a kodak. Finally, the baggage, whether carried by the tourist or the guide, should contain a spirit-lamp, and in some cases, when going beyond regions where no water may be found, something to drink.

The various Alpine clubs undertake to provide huts or shelters on the high mountains where the climbers may rest and spend the night. These huts, provided with the needful, are placed under the protection of tourists. Whether the hospitality of these refuges should be made payable by non-members is a question being considered by the French club. The respect of the property of others is not always observed in principle on the mountains, and it happens that smugglers, cowherds, and tramps make themselves at home in these huts, carrying off the fuel, utensils, and even bedding.

Wherever there is a great rush of tourists owing to a new peak or view being discovered, the hotel-keeper comes upon the scene, and the hut is soon transformed into an hotel.

Climbers up or down precipices must be careful to select a spot where there is the least risk of falling stones. At times the chamois are the guilty parties, but generally the cause is due to moisture that enters crevices, and if the night is cold freezes, and the stones crack. The warm sun the next day melts the adhesive ice and the detached stones begin to roll down the mountain-side, and when in a mass carry rocks with them, at times causing an avalanche.

When climbing the perpendicular wall of a precipice do not lose your head. The best way to accustom oneself is to hang over the yawning chasm until you feel you are no longer dizzy. In time one gets used to the sight.

The grand principle in climbing is to make good use of your four members. Never let go one hold until the three other members are stuck fast and perfectly balanced. The *piolet*, or pick, is the indispensable friend and help. There is a

proper and a defective way of digging it into the rock. On quitting snow the first precaution taken is to pick the particles of ice from among the nails of the boots, thus to prevent a treacherous slide. Study well your rock ; mark out the projecting bits you intend as a foothold. Advance slowly. Wilson (a well-known Alpinist) relates that he knew three experienced climbers, one of whom was a guide, who took two hours to climb up a hundred feet on the side of a precipice.

How many of the fatal accidents in the Alps are attributed to the breaking of the rope by which climbers are tied to one another. The quality of the rope employed is therefore a vital question. Matured Alpinists prefer rope made from manilla to the ordinary hemp. It is not so heavy, is more elastic and not liable to rot if wetted. A special kind of rope is made, and is generally adopted by the Alpine clubs as well as the Alpine regiments stationed in the Alps. The different ways of tying-up the rope is quite an art. It may be arranged in a spiral, in chain form, or tied up sausage fashion.

Another important question is as to the right number of climbers to be tied together with one rope. It would seem more logical to settle the difficulty by a study of the dangerous peaks and precipices to be scaled, or according to the weight of the members of the party. Mummery puts the number at two, quite enough when proceeding along a dangerous ledge in a "couloir." Opinion is divided. Three, and at times four, climbers are attached by the same rope. Güssfeldt, an authority, says that the catastrophe of the Aiguille Blanche was due to the fact that only two were roped together. Crossing glaciers or climbing in and out of ice crevices, it will be found convenient to be four and even five to one rope. When roped together the tourists follow in Indian file, as is generally known. Thoroughly well equipped, tied one to another, the safety pick in readiness, the tourists can crawl over crags, climb up the vertical sides of rocks, the first on top to attach the second rope, walk or glide in a sitting posture

over the snow. In other words, indulge to the height of their bent in the sublime joys derived from Alpinism.

The French Alpine Club has taken as an appropriate motto the head-word of Longfellow's poem, "Excelsior!" The Alps are a source of new energy and new life; the great reservoir of natural and moral strength. This is by no means a latter-day notion. "*Sunt rupes virtutis iter*," said the philosopher of old.

Much more might be added, for Alpinism is an inexhaustible subject, which has had, and has still, its high-priests; among these de Saussure and Edward Whymper, one of the great pioneers of the Alps and author of several classic works on the fascinating subject of mountain ascensions.

The few hints herewith will suffice to point out to the ambitious tourist the vital importance of some preliminary training ere he attempts to conquer the Alps.

CHAPTER VII

EDUCATION AND RELIGION

Education in Switzerland.

It is not too much to say that Switzerland is the only country in the world where Democracy is not a mere phrase, but a perfectly worked-out living reality. And further, it is the only country where such a state of things would be possible, owing to the superior education and enlightenment of its people: for so thorough is the instruction afforded by the primary schools all over the land that for all practical purposes the State sends its children into the battle of life disciplined, educated, and above all, law-abiding.

An English thinker has declared that the Swiss are born pedagogues, and as a matter of fact we find the Swiss all over the world, even in princely families, as professors, tutors, governesses, etc. At the base of all Swiss education is to be found the principle of republican equality and this fundamental law was never more clearly laid down than on the day when the measure of 1874 was propounded. It was passed by the Federal Council and enacts that the Swiss cantons are to provide for primary instruction which is to be compulsory, sufficient, and placed under the civil authorities absolutely free of charge. The same law declares that public schools shall be such as to enable adherents of all religious persuasions to attend them without thereby suffering either in their liberty of conscience or faith. At the same time, the law states that the necessary measures will be taken against any of the cantons failing to comply with its requirements in this respect.

The above measure, while leaving great latitude to the different cantons, recognizes in the justest manner their wants and aspirations. What the legislator aims at is a sound,

practical education, giving to each citizen what is most useful to him in his own particular sphere of activity.

And in such an education resides the best of a nation's power and the corner-stone of every democracy: this great truth had been already foreshadowed in previous acts, but that of 1874 conceived and laid down a plan of instruction no longer limited to the "three R's." To carry out the noble conceptions and large ideas of the promoters of primary education it was necessary to train a band of teachers, devoted men and women, capable of teaching, and especially of developing the moral and higher side of their pupils' nature. Such is the arduous task of the public teacher that the austere pleasure of having served mankind and contributed secretly to the public good must be his support; he must, above all, be impelled by a sense of the moral importance of his work.

The teacher is in some sense a father, self-dedicated to children who are not his own, but for whom he works patiently and devotedly. Teaching in very truth must be a vocation, drawing out what is best in man or woman, and discovering virtues of perhaps the highest order. Parents readily give their confidence and pupils their obedience when the work of the instructor is based on a real authority. True, the old-fashioned schoolmaster with cane in hand has disappeared, and in our day the prestige of the teacher must entirely depend on the influence he exercises on his young disciples, completing and not seldom correcting that of the home.

What is necessary, above all things, for a child is the development and cultivation of those virtues which make the man and the good citizen; the man by the sense of brotherhood, the citizen by the sense of patriotism; the real school is not within four walls, but in the open air, within reach of the splendid book of nature, where he meets with those difficulties proportionate to his childish strength, giving him thus early the salutary training in endurance and the power to overcome difficulties so necessary for after life.

The young Swiss lives a great part of his school life in the

open air. He knows the peaceful sites, where still speak the eloquent tones of a glorious past.

A few years ago, when on an excursion with some Genevese colleagues, we were present at a simple and touching scene in the Three-Spring Grove on the Grütli Plain. A group of scholars, carrying the Swiss flag, were listening with uncovered heads and solemn attentive mien to the reading of the oath taken in 1291. The master followed up the reading by a short and eloquent speech, after which all joined in the Swiss National Hymn. That was certainly a lesson in patriotism, well chosen and given at an opportune moment.

It has often been said that the object of Rousseau and of Pestalozzi was to make the school a real centre of democracy, but time and generous effort, nay, even the noble sacrifice of devoted men and women, were necessary for the germination and growth of this useful seed.

The compulsory and free character of the teaching imparted in the Swiss schools is a benefit to the whole country, without encroaching on the liberty of private education, still much favoured in certain parts and which must not be confounded with the private establishments all over the country, so much patronised by foreigners.

The latest advance realized is the federal subsidy granted to the cantons, not to diminish their obligations, but to enable the primary school to be developed and its sphere of usefulness extended.

At the tender age of three years the infants' school receives its little pupils, and here the Froebel method is usually adopted. Only perfectly healthy and clean children are accepted. In both respects there is the strictest supervision, and any child appearing unwashed or with dirty clothes is immediately sent home and his parents, or whoever has charge of him, is compelled to wash the child and clean his clothes.

In these schools every effort is made, every rational means taken to encourage the child's individual efforts, strengthen his will, and develop his energy. All the methods are most

modern. The programme includes various manual exercises, conversations on moral subjects, the elements of arithmetic, reading, writing, and drawing, all taught in such a manner as to lead the child to think for himself. From a moral point of view the child breathes a healthy atmosphere in the infants' school, when he learns to love the good and the beautiful, and he goes there with delight.

The School.

From the age of six years until completion of the fifteenth year every child must receive in a public or private school, or at home, a sufficient education. By sufficient is understood at least reading, writing, drawing, grammar, arithmetic, the elements of geography and history, elements of natural and physical science, singing, gymnastics, and for boys notions of government, for girls needlework.

In case of nonconformity with the law, the maximum fine inflicted is 50 francs, but the offenders may be even imprisoned, and, if a foreigner, expelled from the canton.

As regards private teaching in most parts of Switzerland, no foreigner is permitted to give lessons, unless he have obtained the consent of the local authorities, which is granted either on examination or on production of degrees or diplomas of recognized standing. In all cases, private schools must submit to inspection by officers of the Education Board.

But private schools, except for very young and delicate children or foreigners, can scarcely live in Switzerland, so splendidly organized, so efficient and so cheap are the public schools. And well-to-do parents think it no disgrace to allow their children to take advantage of the superior facilities which the schools afford, even though they should thereby be brought in contact with the butcher's son or the concierge's daughter. This liberality of feeling and co-operation on the part of so-called better class, in any case richer, parents no doubt largely contribute to the success and to the real civilizing influence of the free school in Switzerland. In vain does England pass or reject Education Bills. The board school can never rise to

the level of the Swiss free school until the miserable petty class distinctions which, extraordinary as it may appear, still exist in that free country, disappear.

Supplementary schools exist to meet the necessity of scholars whose parents, as is often the case, find it difficult to keep their child at school for the full term, and any person employing a child between the age of thirteen and fifteen is obliged to allow time for regular attendance at one of these schools.

Very often it happens, amongst the working classes, that children have nowhere to go and no one to take care of them after school hours, their parents being still at work. To meet these cases classes are formed where the young people are occupied in some profitable and agreeable way ; the little ones have toys and games, the bigger, tools, hand-work, etc., etc. These so-called " classes gardiennes " render invaluable services both to children and parents. When necessary, meals are served in the kitchens adjoining.

Most of the primary schools are fitted up with hot and cold shower baths, splendid gymnasiums, and perfected systems of heating and ventilation. The school buildings are large and cheerful, the furniture hygienic and adapted to modern requirements.

In the summer large parties are formed and these under the supervision of devoted masters and mistresses spend the hot days of July and August in some quaint chalet or farm, breathing the pure mountain air. Altogether child-life in Switzerland thrives under exceptionally favoured conditions.

The certificate given at the end of the fifth year in the primary school admits to the higher schools, and pupils who do not proceed to these generally attend public evening classes, also under the control of the State.

The horticultural schools extend from day to day their sphere of usefulness, offering to those who study in them not only a healthy and moral vocation, but also a lucrative one. Many and various are the careers open to the horticulturist, from the simple gardener to the proprietor of a large

establishment employing a number of workmen, as are to be found in France, Belgium, America, and other countries. It is to be hoped that in these days of struggle and stress in our cities these schools may induce many young men to decide for that existence in the quiet country, of which the old poet says: "O fortunatos nimium sua si bona norint Agricolas" (Happy the inhabitants of the country, if only they knew their happiness).

The old College of St. Antoine at Geneva, which has just celebrated its 350th year of existence, is an object of veneration and love to all true-born Genevese, and it is a tradition with them to send their sons there. The teaching staff is thoroughly efficient, the programme of studies comprehensive and well chosen, the discipline enforced strict and just. The fees compared to any school of the same class in England are absurdly low (40 francs per annum in the lower forms, 50 in the upper, the pupil, of course, supplying all books, stationery, etc). Pupils are admitted at the age of twelve to the lower school, and the course of studies comprises seven years, after which the pupil who has worked diligently, is eligible for admission to the different faculties of the universities and to the Polytechnic at Zurich.

Girls' High Schools.

The high schools for girls all over the country give a first-class and national education to women; true, they do not learn Latin, Greek, or advanced mathematics, but, on the other hand, they acquire a sound knowledge of general history, literature, natural sciences, modern languages, and practical arithmetic, and a girl having completed her studies in one of these schools can earn her living all over the world.

Still more practical schools for girls are the housekeeping schools which are to be found in all the large towns of Switzerland. In these schools girls learn every branch of knowledge likely to be of service either in the keeping of a home or in those branches of business usually adopted by women. The object of these schools is to complete and develop the

instruction received in the primary school and to prepare young girls for the practical walks of life.

England is awaking at last to the necessity for such practical training for women, and meetings are being held by people of high standing for the furtherance of the higher education of women in home science and economics. Lectures are now given in the Women's Department of King's College, which are specially adapted to the needs of women wishing to prepare themselves for the efficient management of their homes, or to enter upon social work, such as that of settlement workers and health visitors.

Corresponding to the housekeeping schools for girls we find professional schools for boys, and the certificate of these establishments gives the right of admission to the School of Industrial Arts, to the School of Watch-making, to the School of Fine Arts, to the School of Commerce, etc., etc.

Professional Schools.

The professional schools are not, as their names might lead one to suppose, schools of apprenticeship, where pupils are prepared for definitive trades. They are rather establishments for general culture and only differ from the lower forms of colleges in certain details of their programmes. Destined rather for pupils who embrace industrial, artistic, or commercial careers, they neglect Latin altogether to give larger place to mathematics, drawing, and sciences, always keeping in view that their pupils may at any time be called on to put into practice the lessons learned there.

The technical schools of Switzerland, particularly that of Zurich, which sends engineers all over the world, are too well known to require more than a very cursory mention. Admission to them, as to all the higher schools, is by examination or on presentation of a certificate judged equivalent.

The Swiss universities hold an honourable place in the world of letters and to them are due many remarkable discoveries as, in mathematics, the *calcul* of generalizations, in physics, the liquification of oxygen. The University of Bâle, although it

Photo by *Frith*

CONSTANCE CATHEDRAL

cannot boast the age of those of Italy and Paris, is still worthy of veneration and owes its foundation to a Bull granted by the Council of 1431, largely the work of Pius II, who, mindful of former hospitality received from Bâle, richly endowed it. This university hailed the Reformation with its emancipation of thought ; she bade welcome to the partisans of free inquiry, among whom was Erasmus, and gave a great impulse to all the sciences. She possesses a fine library which bears witness to the fact that the art of Gutenberg was early practised there ; it is indeed well known that the reputation of the Bâle typography was very widespread. At the present day this university offers every facility for study, and being richly endowed, is practically independent of the State as to financial resources.

The Universities.

In the year 1910-11 the number of students at the Bâle University amounted to 702, of whom 156 were foreigners.

Berne saw her academy raised to the rank of a university in 1834, thanks to the influence of the brothers Schnell and Berthoud. The faculties of natural history and medicine are rapidly developing ; the lectures on chemistry, physiology, and anatomy are given in three separate buildings, splendidly fitted up. The scientific laboratories are very fine, ethical sciences have their own seminaries; there are two divinity schools, one for Protestants and one for Roman Catholics.

In 1911-12, 1,984 students studied at Berne, of whom 898 were foreigners. Of the total, 523 were females.

The Academy of Geneva was founded by Calvin in 1559. Its site was in the main street (now the Fol Museum and Reading Club) until 1872, when it was transferred to the present buildings, of which the completion was materially aided by a gift from Mr. Revilliod. This academy opened very modestly with three professors, one of theology, one of literature, and one of philosophy. From the eighteenth century the scientific element began to find a place in its teaching, and at the present day the number of its students is ever on the increase.

Raised to the rank of a university since 1873 by the addition of a faculty of medicine, the old academy now possesses separate wings for chemistry, pathology, etc. Its library possesses a valuable collection of manuscripts dating from the stormy times of the Reformation, and numbers to-day more than 150,000 volumes.

Many travelling and other prizes are in the gift of the university. These are due to the generosity of various donors. This university recorded in 1904-5 the names of 886 students ; in 1911-12 the roll showed 1,515, of whom two-fifths were women.

In connection with the university there is a good dental school, where many young doctors qualify as dentists and there attain to no mean excellence in their art.

Fribourg is a new university still in its infancy, but to judge by the recent addition of a faculty of medicine, is likely to develop very rapidly. This university has its scientific premises in the Pérolles buildings, its other faculties in the Lycée. It is endowed with a faculty of Roman Catholic theology, recently increased by two chairs of Philosophy and a chair of Law. It has besides numerous seminaries, important physical, chemical, mineralogical and geological laboratories, all splendidly fitted up with perfected apparatus and enriched with rare and splendid gifts.

The valuable historical and artistic collections are ever on the increase and the library is frequented by a large number of readers. Many important exhibitions and scholarships, particularly for theological students, are in the gift of the university. The reading-room contains 208 reviews and about thirty newspapers in different languages.

As regards the faculties, in 1905 twenty-four degrees of Dr. were conferred, and at that date the number of students was 435, of whom 265 were foreigners.

The University of Lausanne, after three attempts to constitute itself a centre of higher studies, of which the first dates back as far as the Reformation, was finally established in 1890 as such. The present university buildings are all that could

be desired, and are due to the generosity of Gabriel de Rumine, former pupil of the Academy of Lausanne.

The lectures of the different faculties are of the highest scholarship, and the clinics, library, laboratories, etc., are fitted up to meet the most modern requirements.

In 1910-11 the number of students who studied at Lausanne was 1,233, of whom 635 were foreigners.

Some mention is due to the Academy of Neuchâtel, of which the history dates back to 1840. The original object of its creation was to supplement and strengthen existing establishments.

The Academy of Neuchâtel now occupies a well-defined place side by side with the universities. Her representatives sit side by side with those of her more renowned sisters at the annual meeting of the Swiss universities. These meetings were instituted at Berne in 1903 with a view to affording an opportunity for the discussion of questions touching higher education in Switzerland, and to bring together the representatives of the different learned bodies, in order to advance by united effort the interest of Swiss education.

In 1910–11 the roll of students studying at the Neuchâtel Academy rose to the respectable figure of 156.

The number, ever increasing, of foreigners, who come to Switzerland every year for the purpose of study, is so considerable, that no account of the state of education in Switzerland would be complete without some mention of so important an element.

The proportion of women students had increased from 26 per cent. in 1900-1901 to 32 per cent. in 1904-5, and by far the larger number of these were Russians. The table on the next page will prove interesting.

Surely the Swiss may be justly proud to see their universities, technical schools, and in fact all their educational establishments, so highly prized by foreign nations.

Complaints, however, are often heard of this invasion of universities and classes by foreigners.

Russia	1,500	students,	of	which	1,000	are	ladies.
Germany..	521	„	„		42	„	„
France	142	„	„		22	„	„
Bulgaria	117	„	„		21	„	„
Austria	100	„	„		7	„	„
Italy	59	„	„		—	„	„
United States	37	„	„		9	„	„
Hungary..	36	„	„		4	„	„
Great Britain	28	„	„		5	„	„
Roumania	28	„	„		2	„	„

An idea has been long afloat and is slowly filtering through public opinion that the Confederation should grant proportionate subsidies to the different universities, according to their individual resources and exigencies, and this so as to permit these learned bodies to acquit themselves worthily of their high task, in view of the ever-increasing demands made by the foreign and native youth who crowd within these sanctuaries of learning.

But amongst the crowds which throng the lecture-halls are to be found, as indeed may be easily supposed, a number of that class of listeners, for they do not deserve the name of student, who attend the lectures from mere dilettantism and " because it's so amusing ! " Surely it is but reasonable that the serious workers, who often sit in the worst places or are even pushed out into the corridors to make room for the snob disciples, ask for a dike to be constructed which may repel the influx of these unworthy invaders. The highest scientific and philosophical culture looks not to the number of its adherents, but rather to the few faithful disciples who follow the teaching of the masters. These alone by the achievement of some perfected work cast a glory in later days on the alma mater who has nourished them.

But a country ought not to be intended to shine by an exceptional instruction alone, which must ever reach only a small minority ; it must feel its strength solidly founded on a pedagogy, educating and acting simultaneously on the character and the intelligence. Such is the true domain of democratic culture, tending to strengthen the national feeling

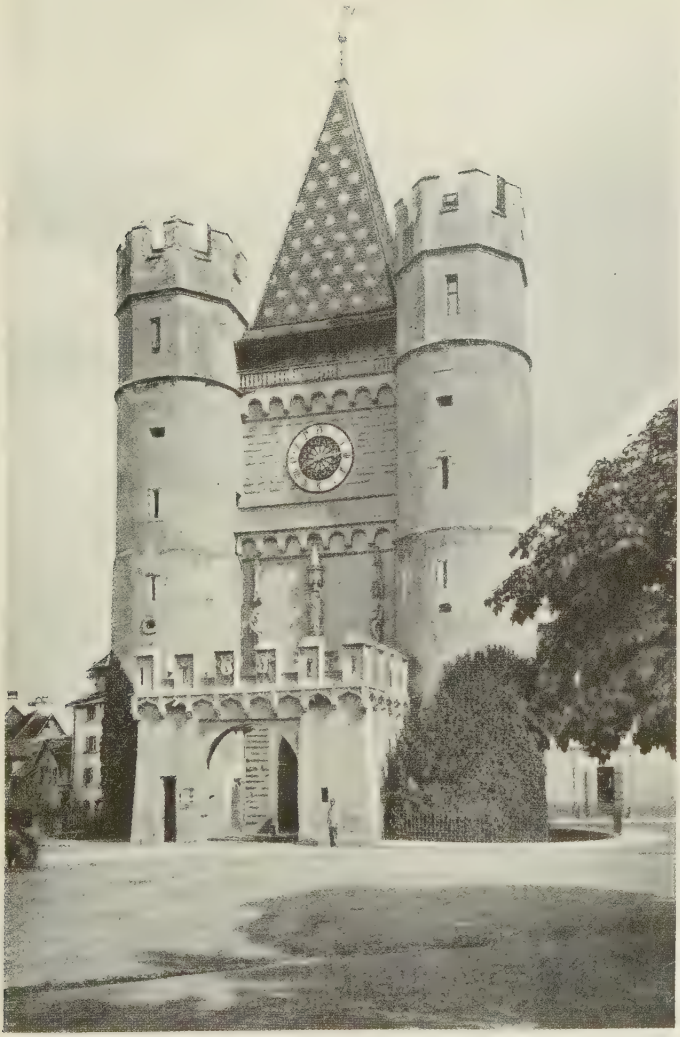


Photo by *Frith*

ST. PAUL'S GATE, BÂL

and to draw out for good the efforts of those who will later in their turn found and rear families, laying the foundation of that simple conscientious obedience to duty which makes the grandeur and purpose of life.

The international boarding-schools, which are to be found all over Switzerland, are quite unique of their kind. These are cosmopolitan establishments, not to be confounded with English boarding-schools. In the latter, discipline, attention to the manners and moral of pupils, who are all of the same nationality, and the cultivation of sport, are essential features. English people send their children to boarding-schools to have the corners rubbed off and that the boy or girl may early learn to take his place in the battle of life; in other words, English parents believe in boarding-schools, as a rule. The Swiss do not, and are generally quite satisfied with the public day-schools, which are excellent, economical, and with sufficiently long hours of study to relieve the household of most of the disturbance resulting from the presence of children.

Boarding Schools.

Swiss boarding-schools are, with few exceptions, kept for foreigners, and their pupils are generally above the regular school age. They are young people completing their studies abroad and a year or two is generally the utmost limit of time at their disposal. They find in the "Pensionnat" a home life, congenial intellectual society, abundant opportunity for improvement, particularly in modern languages, and for girls in art, for boys in commercial branches, and also, and especially, an often too preponderant element of amusement. Certainly the atmosphere of a Swiss boarding-school is very different to that of an English one, concerts, theatres, soirées, follow in quick succession and the young people have hardly time to remember that they are at school. But lessons are not forgotten, and the boy or girl returning to his own country after a residence of one or two years in one of these international boarding-schools will probably have learned to speak

two or three modern languages fluently and have acquired a host of other useful knowledge besides.

Many princes have sojourned at some of these schools as pupils, and no doubt very often learned not a few useful social lessons during their stay in this full-blown democracy. National prejudices are smoothed away and shown in all their ridiculous small-mindedness in this common life shared by representatives of every quarter of the globe.

Some of these institutions are very old established and enjoy a world-wide celebrity, tracing their history back for above half-a-century, and numbering on their rolls the names of many pupils since celebrated in their respective countries for signal services rendered to their fellow-men.

It is as well to view the two sides of the case, and we have heard complaints about these boarding-schools, especially in the country, where pupils had never heard anything of the great cities of Europe other than Swiss. And this happened also in a higher class than at primary schools in a town. Children are taught to consider money as the idol, and it has been stated, on authority, that children have put coins in their mouths just to show how much they loved it. Lectures on the importance of riches have been held in some schools.

In the private schools pupils are called upon to subscribe for all sorts of entertainments, and when punished made to pay a fine in money. Wealthy girls often transgress, knowing that a money contribution will get them out of trouble.

True, that at one girls' school the money resulting from fines was given to some poor children at Christmas; thus the superior was able to show her charitableness on an economical basis.

To conclude this chapter a short sketch on Geneva's foreign students is appended. Of the 1,515 students at the university a year ago, 709 were foreigners, representing as many as twenty-four nations. This explains the very cosmopolitan character of the university. There were 255 Russians, then came the Bulgarians, who numbered ninety-three; these were followed

Foreign Students at Geneva.

by the Germans, French, Poles, Armenians, Italians, Roumanians, Greek, etc., etc.

Some readers will perhaps object that Russians and Poles are almost identical, and that, therefore, it is useless to mention the latter apart from the first. But, in reality, they are as different as the Germans and the French. For instance, the Poles are wittier, they have more tact and a far greater love for dress than the Russians. Besides, the Poles hold themselves very much aloof from their fellow-subjects of the Czar. Whenever one meets a lady student dressed after the latest fashion one may be certain that she is a Pole. Besides, if you wish to make sure you need only suggest to her, that you think she must be a Russian. She will promptly refute the accusation. A Russian is always very proud and happy to be taken for a Russian. The latter is a born patriot, which quality renders him objectionable to the authorities of his own country.

The Russians may, in the secret places of their hearts, believe that the Universities of St. Petersburg, Moscow, Odessa, etc., are superior to those of Germany, Switzerland, and other lands, but it will not prevent them from crowding the lecture-rooms of Munich, Brussels, Geneva, or other cities when those of their own country are closed against them. Nor will any difficulties frighten them away.

Many are obliged to travel ten to fifteen days, and that as third or even fourth-class passengers. Surely a very fatiguing business. When they return to Russia, which they are obliged to do every two years for the renewal of their passports, every book is detained for examination by the Imperial Customs officials. The books are returned to the owners a week, or even three weeks after, and then it will frequently be found that pages have been rendered illegible, or that occasionally the books have not been returned at all, because they have been considered dangerous to the State. The owners of such books think themselves very lucky if they escape imprisonment or exile.

The majority of Russians make one great mistake, they come to Geneva with a very poor knowledge of French, and so the first year of their university life is practically wasted. Besides, they are in consequence severely handicapped in the examinations. They are so anxious to follow the academic course or to work in the laboratories that they give far too little time to the study of the language which is to convey knowledge to them. It has been noticed that the Poles, Servians, and Greeks are generally better equipped in the way of language. It is certain that there would be much less misunderstanding between the Slav students and the Genevese if the former could explain themselves more fluently and correctly.

The Genevese have French ideas and customs. To them the freedom of intercourse between the sexes that reigns in Great Britain is incomprehensible, even shocking. But this freedom is still greater among the Slavs and is a sore point in their eyes. Now human beings are gregarious animals, the Slavs particularly so, and the students of both sexes frequently meet at each other's rooms for debates on scientific or social questions, debates that sometimes last till late at night. The throats are kept moist by a liberal supply of very weak tea or coffee.

That objectionable class of students, which is to be found particularly in Paris, Munich, and other large cities, and whose manner of living has been so ably described by Henry Murger in his " Scènes de la Vie de Bohême," and whom a German author has appropriately styled " the third sex " (*das dritte Geschlecht*), is represented in Geneva by an exceedingly small minority of its foreign students. But its smallness has not prevented it from casting its shadow on the respectable majority, which shadow, combined with the characteristic mentioned in the preceding paragraph, has sufficed to give the Russians a bad name. Just as Calvin, in days gone by, was deeply shocked by the Genevese, so they, in their turn, cast up their eyes to heaven in holy horror at the mere mention of a Russian student. The writer, who has cultivated the

society of Slav students, may here be allowed to express an opinion, which is that the majority of students are good, healthy-minded men and women.

Foreign students, as a rule, pay from sixty to eighty francs a month for their food and lodging. Their habit is to hire a bedroom in or near the route de Carouge and to take their meals at a restaurant or at the Russian kitchen, which is open to all students. This kitchen was founded by the Russian Mutual Aid Society and consists of a dingy little restaurant in the rue Goetz Monin. Dinner can be had there for sixty-five centimes, and must be paid for in advance. The catering, waiting, and washing up is done by the students themselves, each taking his or her turn. The rent, cook's wages, supplies, and other expenses are paid in part by the price of the meals and the remainder out of the funds of the Society. This Mutual Aid Society also makes loans, on very easy terms, to students who are very "hard up." Collections are made among the students on its behalf and every winter semester bazaars are held, or fêtes and balls are given by them, the proceeds going either to the Russian Mutual Aid Society or to the Russian library. The Bulgarians have a similar society and a library of their own.

The Russian library contains some hundreds of volumes, besides the principal newspapers and reviews published in that language. Readers pay an annual and a monthly subscription for its use. The librarian and his assistants give their time and trouble for nothing. Many a happy hour has been spent here among the books and papers by the students.

In speaking of the kitchen we should have mentioned that it is often used as a place of meeting for debates and lectures. These have a socialistic tendency, for the principles and ideals of Socialism are immensely popular with all the students. When the meetings are likely to be very large they are held in the Café Fédéral or the Salle Bonfantini.

Having given the reader an idea of the life of Geneva's foreign students it may be as well to state that the majority

go in for medicine or natural science, and that only 150 have entered the faculties of letters, theology and law.

The first two or three semesters of medical study are devoted to botany, physics, chemistry, and comparative anatomy. The same rule is applied to such as go in for natural science. Both medical and science students have to pass in these subjects, and are obliged to have spent a certain amount of time in one or more of the laboratories. That of analytical chemistry is crowded with students; there are also large numbers in the botanical laboratory. The latter is under the direction of a distinguished scientist, who is not only a brilliant lecturer but also an excellent teacher.

On Thursdays he makes botanical excursions with his pupils. From fifteen to thirty-five of them follow him over hills, through marshes and valleys, and listen eargerly to his very interesting conversation and impromptu lectures on the plants, the geological formations and history of the regions they pass through. No road is too bad, nor is the sun ever too hot. Carrying the provisions for the day with them, armed with a trowel and a tin to protect the collected plants against all dangers, the students are thus enabled to devote one day a week to the beauties of nature and healthful exercise. The evenings have then to be devoted to naming and pressing the treasures which have been dug up in the course of the day.

The Professor does not only take his pupils to such places as the Salève, Voirons, Vuache, Lac du Bourget, the Valais, but every year he takes a party either to the south of France, to Corsica, or to Spain in order to study the flora of those parts. These excursions last from four to fourteen days, according to the season; they are very instructive and exhausting. Hundreds of sheets of botany paper accompany the party, and the evenings are devoted to the care of the plants which have been collected during the day, and which are finally transported to Geneva to become the subject of further study.

Medical students spend a great part of the winter semester

A RELIGIOUS PROCESSION AT EVOLENA

in the anatomical laboratory. Dissecting goes on all the morning under the Professor's direction and that of his two assistants. The number of students is so large that it is almost impossible to provide material for all. The teaching is excellent and thoroughly practical.

The laboratories for physiology and histology are very good also. These two subjects, together with human anatomy and embryology, are the subjects for the medical student's second examination. When that is passed, his time is devoted to clinical work.

The student of natural science takes up his speciality, whether it be botany or physics or chemistry or zoology, etc., after he has passed the preliminary scientific examination mentioned above.

Religion in Switzerland.

The Reformation is so closely identified with religious reform in Switzerland, that a short sketch of this great revolution of thought and faith is practically necessary. Possibly nowhere else in the world was the need of reform in the church more visible than in Switzerland. Though many of her clergy were men of the rarest intellects and the most cultured minds, the masses of the Swiss people were ignorant and superstitious. It was seldom that one of the thousands of the peasantry could even read.

It had been a hundred years since the great Constance Council had met to improve the condition of the church, yet she still suffered the same need. Apart from dethroning two or three would-be popes and burning a few Christians, this famous Council at Constance had effected nothing. Switzerland was worn out with troubled centuries of war and wrong-doing, and now she longed for more than peace—for truth as well.

Germany was fostering the strong spirit that was to rise up as guide and leader of the people. A miner's boy had found a Latin Bible somewhere among the dusty records of Erfurt. Curiosity, love of research, and, finally, amazement at the

wide difference between its simple teachings and the childish fables which passed current in the church as extracts from its pages, led him to pore over its contents continually. Interest deepened as the blessed truth revealed itself to his eager, wondering soul.

A pilgrimage to Rome, that highest aspiration of a pious heart, opened his eyes to the unsuspected follies of the church. He saw the enormities which long exercise and abuse of power had encouraged among the very ones who called themselves the followers of God. He was awakened—he saw the truth, and, with a great strong heart, Luther commenced a revolution of the moral world. His work was a revelation, a power that touched the heart of peasant and king.

Into Switzerland the new light came; some welcomed the light, and others doubting, feared. But Switzerland was not without a man in such a time of doubt and fear. Zwingli appeared. Born in Toggenburg, he began preaching, when but a boy, against the errors of the time. Made parish priest at Einsiedeln, he followed, as was the custom of his day, the banner of his town to war. He had been through one or two miserable campaigns in Italy, and had witnessed with his own eyes the wantonness of the times, and how that wantonness found friendship and shelter in the church. Dissoluteness and crime were sheltered under the priestly cowl, and the holy church had descended to the idlest ceremonies and grossest deceptions. Not in the church alone, but in secular life as well, the extremest folly and dissoluteness seemed to prevail.

Zwingli.

Leo X sat in the papal chair at Rome: a man of many virtues, and a noble patron of the arts. He thought to adorn his Roman palaces and churches with a splendour becoming the son of the illustrious Medici, the magnificent. The art of half the west—the genius of an Angelo—a Raphael's brush, combined to decorate the City of the Seven Hills. Great spires arose and pierced the skies, while courtly palaces were filled with all the luxuries of art.

Want of funds, however, brought all to a standstill, and how to replenish the exhausted treasury was, for a time, a perplexing question. The solution was, however, reached by a sudden recurrence to the many followers of the church beyond the Alps, to whom, in the then degraded condition of the church, indulgences and pardons might be successfully disposed of as an article of barter and profit. A fitting man to conduct this extraordinary traffic was speedily found, and duly fitted out with an unlimited number of pardons, indulgences, blessings, and the like. Specially empowered by the Pope, he set out on his peculiar errand.

Zwingli had, in the meantime, been transferred to the Grossmunster at Zurich, and when the deputy from Rome first made his appearance, selling indulgences, though astonishingly cheap at times, being adapted to the purses of all buyers in all ranks and classes, he raised his indignant voice against the shameful traffic, and the deputy was hissed from the city's gates. Zwingli sought not to introduce strife or rebellion in the church; he laboured only for reform and truth. A believer in the Pope, a Catholic still, he strove to expose the corruption and falsehood which were fostered within the church's pale, that the blessed light of purity and truth might shine once more through her teachings. Tired of the old fables, chronicles, and myths, which for centuries had constituted the written teachings of the church, he sought to learn the will of God in the pages of the Holy Book itself, and to lay open its truth to all. Like Luther, the more he studied, in all the earnestness of faith and prayer, the more he saw to discountenance and disbelieve in the so-called religion of the day, and the more his preaching became obnoxious to the church. He taught that blessings from above could not be bartered for a price—that sinful man, however low, could find communion with the Holy One, through faith alone, and not by means of painted saints and waxen images. He preached with all the power of Luther, and thousands flocked to hear him. The city embraced his teachings, supported him with

ardour, and refused to listen to those who opposed his doctrines. Zurich canton, Berne, and Schaffhausen, gave him a loyal hand, and made his faith a part of theirs. The other cantons resisted the coming change, pitying what they regarded as the blind and fanatic zeal of Zurich, and striving, at first by words and then by force, to turn her from her heresy.

Religious Strife.

A general strife arose between the leaders of the Reform and their opponents: a strife which, with intervals of peace, has been kept alive, among the mountains and vales of Switzerland, for now over 300 years, and there seems as little hope of peace to-day, as when brave Zwingli buckled on his sword in 1523.

Both parties became illiberal, and each sought the speedy destruction of the other. Zurich abolished the mass, and tore down the images in the churches, Zwingli opposed celibacy of priests, and proved his faith by marrying a wife.

The Catholic cantons, five in number, allied themselves against their common foe, the heretics. The Protestants cut off the supplies of bread and meat. The markets on Zurich lake were closed, and then came war. A Catholic army marched across the hills from Zug to Kappel, between Lake Zurich and the river Sihl.

The Protestants came out from Zurich, ready for the fray; but on the battle's eve the neutral cantons came and begged for peace. Peace they obtained, but peace and friendship are not always one. Within a twelvemonth, troops were in the field again, and again they met at Kappel. Zwingli himself was there, ostensibly to preach, but more, in fact, to fight with halberd and sword.

A strange, sad sight it must have been to see these people setting arguments aside, and leaving to the sword the settlement of faith and creed.

It was a mild October morning, in 1531, that barely 1,500 men marched from Zurich along the lake and over the Albis, to where the Catholics lay entrenched, 8,000 strong. The fight began at three in the afternoon and lasted till the sun

went down behind the western hills. Each party fought as if defeat could be but death, yet what the fate of such unequal fight must be, was plainly seen. The Zurichers would rather die than yield the field ; and die they did, whole lines of them, at least. Overpowered and worn out, their leaders killed and darkness over all, they fled. Zwingli himself was wounded by a shower of stones and left among the dying and the dead. When found by his foes he was lying on his back, his hands clasped, and his eyes turned to heaven. On his refusal to confess, a man from Unterwalden cried : " Then die, thou hard-necked heretic "—and stabbed him in the neck.

Not satisfied to see him dead only, whom they alive had feared, they quartered his body, burned it, and scattered his ashes to the winds. Five hundred and seventy-six of the fifteen hundred Zurichers were left dead on the field. Among them, twenty-six councillors of the city of Zurich and twenty-five of the reformed clergy. The wife of Zwingli lost her husband, her son, her brother, her son-in-law and her brother-in-law in the fight. After the battle, the pious Catholics thanked God for the victory and then plundered the camp.

Kappel was lost and with it was lost for a time the hope of the Reformation in Switzerland. Zwingli, the great preacher, the original thinker, the great Reformer, was dead. He had been the most energetic and earnest promulgator of the modern faith. In public life he had been fearless and holy, and in the circle of his personal friends, a man loved for his rare virtues—virtues, the more conspicuous, as he lived in a day when even the learned of the clergy practised vice : when corruption and trickery prevailed in holy place, until the most ignoble deeds wore the garb of sanctity.

With him, the Swiss reformers lost, for a while, the vigour of their faith. Surrender seemed to follow on retreat. The Zurichers, all who were left of them after the fight, went home and settled down within the city's walls. The Catholics took heart, set up their images again and forced their ancient faith on every

Zealots.

village, farm, and town within their reach. Whole cantons were compelled to renounce the so-called errors of the day. Persecution followed in the train. At Solothurn, the Protestants were driven out from lands and home. Even Zurich seemed to waver in her faith, and the weaker thought, at times, to abandon all that had been gained. To make the matter worse, whole tribes of German zealots, possessed of the most nonsensical notions of life and the new faith, pinned themselves to the reformed church, and cast the greatest odium on its struggling infancy.

Reformers these, indeed! Banished from Germany, where their dissolute life was no longer tolerated, these Anabaptists, as they were called, fled to Switzerland, where, among the ignorant and wanton, they found many a follower. To the minds of these fanatics, the day of a strange Jubilee had come. Rank and caste and class should fall. Moneys and lands, no longer privilege of the few, should now belong to each and all. A general division of the spoils of peace, as well as war, should be decreed. Simplicity of life, manners, and customs should become the practice in the faithful camp. The most scandalous excesses were committed. Law and order and even decency were thrown aside with their garments. They preached and taught in the forests of Zurich and Berne, and, in order to seem as primitively innocent as possible, men and women were sometimes seen stark naked in the streets. All this excess, the Anti-Zwinglians said, is but a part of the Reformer's faith: and not till the strong arm of the law had ended the zeal of the Anabaptist fools upon the scaffold, did the imputation cease. The Reformation suffered—was retarded, by these builders of a new Jerusalem, without its Jews. It was the burden of a zealous, foolish friend, hitched to the barely floating shallop of the young Reform, and not unlike, in all its bad results, the weight of libertinism, "free-love-ism," and spiritualism, borne by the noble party seeking woman's franchisement in England and America to-day.

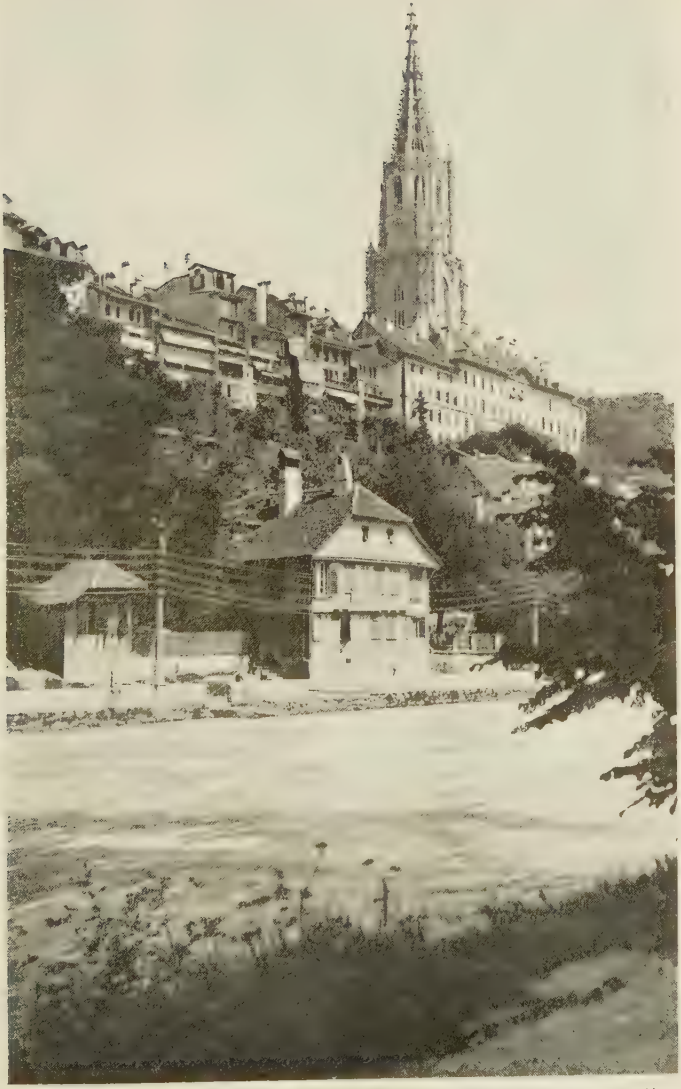


Photo by *Wehrli*

BERNE CATHEDRAL FROM THE AARE

The darkest hours of the Reformation in Switzerland, however, were soon to pass, for the new faith silently grew and again gained ground among the most intelligent throughout the land. One foreign city, too, that stood just on the borders of the Confederacy, came fairly out in favour of the great reform, Geneva. First, a bishopric, then the capital of Burgundy, and last, an ally of the Savoy counts, she was the centre of the French-Italian trade. Rich, prosperous, and without a master save the Emperor, she welcomed to her gates the heralds of the new belief. Her only care was for her allied friends, the Savoy counts, who claimed, at times, some powers not well defined within the city law : and for some bishops of the Pope, who fell to considering themselves lords temporal there. In course of time, the princes of the Savoy house became themselves the bishops of the place, and ruled for many, many years ; if not in peace, at least in partial peace, for times so troublesome. Geneva, tiring at last of the Savoy rule, whether of Bishop or Count, looked to the neighbouring Swiss for hope and help, both of which she received, and freed herself from usurpation of whatever sort and proclaimed herself a free Republic.

Geneva.

Her chosen allies now were Swiss, and having gone through a revolution of the political sort, she undertook another of a graver kind. The new faith, though well received by some, had many bitter foes and many bitter fights in the Genevese Republic. At last, John Calvin rose to become its leader and defender. A cooper's son, born in France, bred in the law, versed in the faith, and strong in heart, he took up the sword that Zwingli dropped at Kappel with his life. Twice had Calvin been a fugitive from Paris, once from Italy, and once indeed from his adopted town, Geneva. Severe and rigid, he cared little for ancient forms and creeds. With him, the Church and State were one, and both demanded reform. Geneva was not ready for his new ideas, and, hence, in 1538, she banished him.

Calvin.

A couple of years or so had scarcely passed, before she sought Calvin out again and begged him to return. It did not take much seeking to find John Calvin then, either, for he had become a famous man, talked of through half the continent.

He came—one of the ablest, though harshest, doctors of the new reform. He laboured long and well in Geneva, and fought all laws, all faiths, that were not Calvin's laws and faith. The severity of character and life which he had shown in Geneva before were renewed and intensified. The unfaithful met with sound rebuke, and revilers were compelled to fly. A man of mighty mind, inflexible in will, he set his heart on one great, noble thought, and laboured till that thought, in part at least, became the thought of half the Christian world.

The Reformation spread. Geneva became a second Rome, and Calvin was her Pope—the Pope who made her laws, who wrote her creeds, who spoke and it was done. No pity for his foes. Rigid, unbending, even with his friends, but one of two results could come of such a man, engaged in such a work —complete success—or, in its stead, complete destruction. No half-way ground was there for him and those who followed him. Hatred raged in the contending camps. To yield was to be lost, and Calvin, right or wrong, would never yield.

Day and night he prayed and preached. It was work, incessant work. Nearly 500 lectures and sermons in a single year were but a fraction of this giant's work. Twenty-four presses were busy, day and night, in Geneva, printing pamphlets, circulars, and books in every tongue, for every land. It was too much, at last, for even him, with all his mighty will. Wearied and worn and sick in frame, though not in heart, he sank, bearing his burden to the very last, and died as only God-like men can die, with armour on, and full of faith, a very hero, even to the grave.

Of Switzerland especially, is it true that religious wars have exceeded in number and in hate all other wars: and yet, though feud and hate tracked close on Zwingli's and on Calvin's work, the whole land smiled with prosperity. Commerce and

art and industry received an impetus within her bounds, such as the Swiss had never known before. Men learned to read, and, reading, learned to rule.

She taught herself to think, as well as fight, and stepped into a higher sphere among the nations of the world.

Geneva prospered as did all the rest, and yet no town was hated half as much as she by Rome and all Rome's disappointed host. Not in Rome alone, in Savoy's land as well, and many were the anxious, longing glances of the Savoy princes towards the City of the Reform.

Their glances turned to deeds, at last, led on by Charles Emanuel, an ancestor of the present King Victor Emanuel. The Savoy duke had long had an army resting on the very edge of the borders of the Genevese, but for the most innocent purpose of watching the movements of his enemy, the French, he said: and so the honest Genevese slept unsuspectingly within their city walls. However, the citizens thus surprised offered desperate resistance and the invaders were eventually driven off.

The Reformation now seemed well established, and not in Switzerland only, for Holland, Sweden, Germany, and England fell in line, to battle for the great Reform. Was on its feet, indeed, but nothing more. With all its friends it never lacked for foes. Fighting everywhere, in every way, had become the chronic order of the day. The heroic age in Switzerland seemed past. Nearly two centuries of worse than nothingness came on. Of course, they quarrelled still among themselves. They had internal feuds and peasants' wars—the latter growing out of ignorance and misconception of the Reformation: for many, like the Socialists, had thought that freedom from the church meant also freedom from restraint of any kind. Yet others, petty rulers, bailiffs, landvogts, and the like, seemed bent on crushing out the nobler spirit growing in the peasant's breast. Not foreign masters longer tyrannized over the poorer people of the land, but masters of a blood and language with themselves. Politically it was Swiss destroying

Swiss. Results were increased bitterness, rebellion, strife, and war. Peasants rebelling, were no sooner punished, trampled down or killed, than other troubles promptly came. Religious hate revived if, indeed, it ever had been smouldering for a day, and had its bloody turn again at war. The faith, or want of faith, that made war almost everywhere, for half the century, was stronger, bitterer, here than even in Germany, where war prevailed for thirty years, without a single pause to give men time to breathe or think of peace, the very name of which was forgotten.

Things remained in the same parlous, unsettled state for centuries, until the time when Geneva came under French domination, in 1803, and became a department of France. The Roman Catholic Church once more held absolute sway; but not for long, inasmuch as with the fall of Napoleon in 1814 Geneva reverted to her ancient form of Republican government.

At the present day Switzerland has two Catholic churches.

Catholicism.

The Roman Catholic Church has its strongholds in certain cantons: Fribourg and Lucerne, for example, and its followers are disseminated in all others.

The Catholic dissident or reformed church, which has renounced certain doctrines, such as papal infallibility, the immaculate conception, the celibacy of priests, confessional, etc., is a properly constituted church having its own bishop elected by a Synod. In various cantons, as in the Protestant, it is a State Church, in other words is State aided.

The national Catholic Church movement in Switzerland is a consequence of the reform brought about in Germany, under the auspices of Döllinger.

The enlightened Roman Catholics, tired of the intrigues of the Jesuits, which led to the unfortunate religious war, known as the Sonderbund, in 1847, when the Catholic cantons united and took up arms against their confederates (an uprising quickly crushed by General Dufour), began to be dissatisfied

Photo by *Frith*

FRIBOURG—LORETTO CHAPEL

with the policy of the Holy Seat. The Jesuits, meanwhile, had been expelled from the country.

The Syllabus and the infallibility of the Pope, proclaimed in 1871, decided them to follow the example of their neighbours in Germany. Influential citizens, among whom were several State Councillors, met at Solothurn and invited the federal government to forbid the teaching of such doctrines in schools or religious lectures. They asked that parishes and parishioners be allowed to have their churches and be able to elect their own clergy without any episcopal intermixing. Several Swiss priests having refused to preach the doctrine of papal infallibility were excommunicated by Monsignor Lachat, Catholic Bishop of Bâle, who in turn was interdicted by the cantonal governments of Aargau, Bâle, Berne and Solothurn. Once more religious war was waged between the faithful and the Church of Rome and its priests. It was rendered all the more bitter, coinciding as it did with Bismarck's famous Kulturkampf.

The struggle between State and Church became desperate in Canton Geneva in 1873.

Until this time the various churches within the Republic of Geneva had lived in comparative harmony. In 1850 (after the local revolution in 1848), at the time when the fortifications around the city were razed, the government, at the head of which was James Fazy, granted land to the various denominations for erecting their churches. Thus the Catholics came into possession of Notre Dame at Cornavin ; the Russians the site of their church in the Tranchées, while the Hebrews took possession of an old Masonic Temple, near the Boulevard du Théatre. The English colony were granted the present site of their church in the rue du Mont-Blanc.

The agitation caused by the scission in German-Switzerland in 1871 spread to Geneva.

Geneva, the Protestant Rome, was ever an object of bitter hatred on the part of the Jesuits, and their one aim is to bring the city under the domination of the Pope. One of the tactics

of the order is to excite fanaticism and foment disorder. To this end Pius IX was induced to elevate Geneva to the rank of a bishopric and appointed M. Mermillod, curate of Notre Dame (already Bishop of Hebron), Bishop of Geneva. Nothing could have more incensed the inhabitants of the Calvinist city. Mgr. Mermillod was interdicted by the government, and then commenced the long war between him and his church and M. Carteret, representative of the Geneva State.

A new legislation regulating the churches was adopted by popular vote. The clergy in future were to be elected by the people and take the oath of loyalty before the State Council. The independent or National Catholics (because submissive to the State) accepted the statutes of the independent church, already drawn up at the meetings at Solothurn and Olten. Aware that they were unable to establish a church without clergy they appealed to Père Hyacinthe Loyson, who had repudiated Rome since the Council, and who was universally known for his eloquence and religious fervour. The Rev. Hyacinthe Loyson came on March 12th, 1873, delivered a series of lectures that remain celebrated, and clearly explained the difference between the Catholic and the Roman Church.

Meanwhile, the intolerance of Mgr. Mermillod led to his being expelled from the canton. He retired to Ferney, celebrated as the home of Voltaire, and kept up the agitation on the Swiss borders. Long pilgrimages of the faithful wended their way to that place every Sunday.

On October 12th, 1873, the Catholic parishioners elected three curates, one among the number being M. Loyson. On the 26th of the same month three other curates were elected for the parishes of Carouge, Chêne, and Lancy. Other parishes have been formed since.

In commemoration of the foundation of the independent National Catholic Church the clergy, every year, celebrate the event in October. The real date of the secession from Rome dates from July 18th, 1870.

The National Catholic Church elects its Bishop by a Synod.

The actual titulary is Bishop Herzog, born at Lucerne in 1841. He has occupied the episcopal seat since 1876. At twenty-seven years of age he was professor of theology in his native town, and one of the first patriotic Swiss priests to oppose the dogma of papal infallibility, and who affirmed in a most decided manner his opinions at a congress held by old Catholics at Cologne in 1872.

He was obliged to resign his professorship ; but the parish of Olten having been reorganized on the principle of the national church, he was elected curate. A month later he was summoned to appear before the Roman Catholic bishop, Lachat, at Bâle. His answer was that he did not acknowledge his jurisdiction. Bishop Herzog's appointment, being sanctioned by the federal government and by the interested cantons, this prelate was consecrated at Rheinfelden, on September 18th, 1878, by Mr. Reinkens, Catholic Bishop of Germany.

The definition of the pretended dogma of papal infallibility adopted by the Council on the closing day, July 10th, 1870, was looked upon as a piece of bravado, and a threat of the ecclesiastical powers to society in general and its governments, and at the same time as the consecration of absolute power over all churches. The principal European States, either through indifference or because they were Protestant, took little notice of this action. Switzerland, however, was awaiting events. Mgr. Lachat, distinguished for his Ultramontanism, was one of the most active papal agents and received encouragement from Rome. In 1872 he was presented by the Pope with a fine pastoral cross as an affectionate acknowledgment of the noble combat he was sustaining. Agitation became more intense ; the prelate went beyond all bounds, and excommunicated right and left without mercy. Finally, after several meetings of the members of the National Church, Mgr. Lachat's revocation was voted. He protested ; printed a mandamus, seized by the Bâle government ; and following his example numbers of curates rebelled against the

government, alleging that it were better to show obedience to the Lord rather than to men.

The Jura-Berne priests were distinguished by their intolerance.

In short, with characteristic energy, in order to put an end to the trouble, the Swiss government expelled all the rebellious priests from their parsonages. Mgr. Lachat continued his fanatical opposition to the authorities, but was finally compelled to give way.

It may be asked why the Romanists objected to share the church with the National Catholics? As a matter of fact the Pope declares the latter apostates, and he forbids his faithful to use any church in common with them, as being a place profaned by sacrilegious worship.

The religious organization is one and the same for the whole Confederation, the ecclesiastical system being different in each canton.

It would be impossible to describe the various systems that obtain in the twenty-two cantons. The system applied in Geneva is about the same elsewhere. The Protestant Church is governed by a Consistoire and the National Catholic Church by a Synod. There are four distinct bodies taking part in the administration.

The Parish Assembly, the Parish Council, the Ecclesiastical District Council, and the Synod.

The Parish Assembly consists of all males having attained their majority and enjoying their civic rights. It elects members of the parish council, nominates candidates for the office of curate, and decides questions laid before it by the cantonal Grand Council.

The Parish Council is composed of the curate or curates officiating in the parish, and from four to fourteen councillors. They are nominated for three years and are re-eligible.

In each ecclesiastical district there is a district council, composed of delegates from the parish councils, the number of laymen being always double the number of curates. Their

time of office is also three years. The work devolving upon this body is the selection of deputies for the Synod, the inspection of parishes, and the supervision of the pastors of the parish councils. The deputations sent by the district councils to the Synod are chosen by ballot, and each consists of three curates and six laymen.

The Synod is composed of the delegates from the district councils, professors of theology in the canton, and three delegates chosen by the cantonal government. The Synod devotes itself to all that concerns the welfare of the church, and when not in session is represented by a synodal commission.

The question as to proprietary rights of the various places of worship, between National Catholics and Roman Catholics, gives rise even to this day to much controversy and bad feeling.

Taking Geneva, for example, the land on which the churches are built was granted by the State to Catholic citizens for building their churches, and in any case involving the question of rights of possession, the matter should be settled by a committee of five trustees, so it was decreed.

When the events of 1873 occurred the National Catholics asked to have possession of Notre Dame. Following out the text of the law, each community appointed its trustees, and the names were submitted to the vote of parishioners.

The National Catholics were elected. So piqued were the opposite party that when the rightful owners went to take possession of Notre Dame, they found the doors locked. Opposition was very bitter on the part of the Ultramontanes and a good deal of legal quibble was essayed.

The Romanists affirm that the churches where they celebrated their mass in Latin were built with their money on land the use of which was granted to them by the city. When, however, the land was ceded, it was clearly stipulated that the grant was made to Catholic citizens, because, said Fazy, " they will not give themselves up to the Jesuits."

The question of the proprietary rights to sacred edifices

has again been resuscitated owing to the recent disestablishment of the church in Canton Geneva. Only this month, the population were painfully impressed by what is considered the backsliding of the government, a number of Radicals and Socialists, who, professing independent ideas in regard to religion, but secretly making a bid for the Roman Catholic vote (in Calvinist Geneva!), handed over a church in a suburban resort hitherto in possession of the National Catholics to the Roman Catholics, under the pretext that the latter had proved their legal rights to its possession.

Protestantism, that enjoyed calm and undisputed possession of its churches and chapels for several centuries, is much exercised by the recent law of disestablishment, in Canton Geneva. The same measure is being considered in Canton Bâle.

Not only does this signify a financial loss, State support being withdrawn, but also a weakening of the faith, owing to the official character of the measure. The faithful are now called upon to support their own clergy.

Some light as to the condition of the church, or churches, in Switzerland, has been thrown on the subject, since the discussions concerning disestablishment. It is thought that the mediæval customs that obtain in Canton Valais will hardly be affected by the movements. The Valaisans are a rough, hard-working peasantry, whose habits have changed little since the Middle Ages. They are completely under the sway of the Romanist clergy. These simple-minded people argue that things have gone on all very well thus far, therefore why any change? Their clergy are as poor as they are. Swiss of other parts liken the canton to a pool. Any reform suggested has the effect of a stone thrown into it. There is a ripple upon the surface, and then the placid waters are as smooth as ever.

Canton Valais.

During the troublous period, from 1830 to 1847, there were signs of a ripple; but, despite the long lapse of time since sixty years, no impression seems to have been left. The people have relapsed into their antiquated ways.

The most curious phase of the case is, that while elsewhere religious contentions tended to separate the church and the people, agitation of the kind seems to draw the people and clergy into a closer bond in the Valais. Thus it is that the Valaisan clergy, although enjoying little or no prerogatives from the State, is more powerful than that of other cantons.

The Valaisans stubbornly live their life of the Middle Ages and refuse to be interfered with.

At the time of the Burgundians, two ecclesiastic powers were opposed one to another in the narrow Rhine valley. The Archbishopric of Sion was protected by the Holy Empire ; the Abbey of Saint Maurice sought protection from Rudolf of Habsburg. The foundation, a few centuries later, of the autonomous community of Saint Bernard, was a third graft to the theocratic tree. The power of the Bishopric of Sion is limited, and in many instances has no power to appoint priests in parts of the diocese. This is the case in the ten parishes under the jurisdiction of the St. Bernard Monastery and to eight other parishes belonging to the Abbey of Saint Maurice. Other places in the Valais, such as Salvan, Finhaut, Vernayaz, and Lavey, although Roman Catholic, appoint their own clergy, or the priests are appointed by the government of the canton.

To explain the reasons for this would of a necessity compel one to go back to the days of feudalism.

Latter-day notions of disestablishment have little hope of success in the Valais.

Lucerne is strongly Catholic, 80 per cent. of the inhabitants being registered as of the Roman Communion, and the ceremonies of the church are celebrated with great pomp and all due regard for Romish display. Of these ceremonies the fête of the Corpus Christi is the most conspicuous. It is known in German by the reasonably euphonious name of *Frohnleichnahmsfest.* Business is generally suspended throughout the town of Lucerne during the greater part of the day of celebration, and steamboat traffic is exceptionally heavy.

The solemnity of the long line of worshippers representing every grade of the people, every civil institution of the town is a sight to be remembered. The sun shines on the Blessed Host (borne along under a gorgeous canopy), on silken banner and silver shrine; on children of tender years and hooded friars grown grey in the service of their Master; and seems—even to those of us whose last vestiges of faith in things human or things humanly interpreted, is all but crumbled away beneath our feet—to give a blessing to the faith, that for so many ages has kept alive the outward observance of the early Christian Church, commingled as it is with the paganism of Rome. In all these faces one sees nothing of hypocrisy, nothing even of the ecstatic emotionalism characteristic of the followers of General Booth; but a calm belief, unshaken and to remain unshaken for generations. This is the impression given by the singular and almost mediæval sight that, once a year, is beheld in all Catholic cities, towns, and villages of Switzerland.

Quick to turn to account any money-making scheme, the villagers of Selzach (Canton Solothurn), envious of the laurels and shekels won by Oberammergau, have instituted the Passionsspiel or Passion Play, for which the Bavarian resort is celebrated all over the world.

Selzach is a pretty village, in the midst of the richest rural scenery, at the foot of the Jura mountains. It is easily reached from Bâle, Berne, Lucerne, and Lausanne. The promoter of these representations of holy history is Mr. A Schläfli, to whose untiring exertions is due the successful acclimatisation of the Passion Play. He owns a large watch manufactory and employs a large number of hands. It was after witnessing the Oberammergau representations that he conceived the idea of the present production in his own village. In the first place, there were the elements among his factory hands, who at their own private theatrical performances had shown considerable histrionic ability. Then the work of preparation

Selzach Mystery-play.

Photo by *Frith*

LAUSANNE—CASTLE AND CATHEDRAL

and rehearsing would be a healthy pursuit and relaxation after the working hours ; elevating to the mind and a means of keeping many from the enticements of the village inn. There were, too, the question of natural ambition and the laudable desire to make the name of Selzach resound in every country in the world. Switzerland is such a country of tourists that Mr. Schläfli's ambitious project has proved a marked success.

The undertaking was by no means a small affair. To organize and drill 250 performers, with a few exceptions all of the same village, was an enormous undertaking. Much of the credit of the success obtained is due to Mr. Vögeli-Nünlist, the village organist and choirmaster, who has brought the executants of the choral parts to such a high standard of perfection. But this is past history, for the Passion Play has been given every summer at Selzach since 1893.

Briefly speaking, the Passion Play as now presented at Selzach, is an Oratorio, provided with prologue, soli, part-singing, and declamatory text dealing with the Old and New Testaments, or as regards the latter the Life, Suffering, Death and Resurrection of Our Lord and Saviour Jesus Christ. There are forty-three tableaux or scenes, which give an idea of the scenic development. The playhouse is a large wooden building, the vast stage of which is provided with electric light and fitted with the most recent mechanical contrivances. As in the Wagner Theatre the musicians are invisible.

The performances begin at 11 a.m. and at 12.30 there is an intermission for lunch, the afternoon séance continuing from 2.30 to 5 o'clock. The charges for admission vary from 2 francs to 8 francs.

The scenes are explained by one of the actors who comes before the curtain, and the declamatory part affords time for those behind to prepare the stage. It must be added that everything is done to add to the dignity and solemnity of the representation.

Candidly speaking, the earlier part is the less interesting. The ear is not accustomed to the musical accompaniments

while the scenes are a succession of tableaux. As to the reality of the tableaux, they are strikingly natural. All the figures are perfectly motionless, apparently of wax, not living beings. In the second part there is more life, the personages speaking and acting.

At the morning performance the tableaux shown are: (1) "Let there be light"; (2) "Adam and Eve"; (3) "Adam and Eve sent out of Paradise"; (4) "Cain and Abel"; (5) "Abraham's Temptation"; (6) "Jacob's Ladder"; (7) "Joseph sold by his brothers"; (8) "Joseph in Egypt"; (9) "Moses in the Bulrushes"; (10) "The Manna," and (11) "The Laws on Mount Sinai." So much for the Old Testament. Before luncheon the following tableaux from the New Testament were represented—

"The Angelus, the Angel appearing to the Shepherds," "The Star of Bethlehem," "The Birth of Christ," "Adoration of Christ," "The Flight into Egypt," "The Holy Family," "The Parable of the Good Shepherd," "Baptism in the River Jordan," "The Sermon on the Mount," "The Transfiguration of Christ," and "Entrance into Jerusalem."

The scenes referring to the New Testament are unquestionably those that give the greatest pleasure, for here we leave the purely legendary for something more tangible, something of which each one's mind has a clear conception. The dressing of the parts is rigorously exact, and most of the scenes are in accordance with the general conception of biblical history. The infant Jesus in the manger is a striking picture, the entry of Christ into Jerusalem a perfect marvel of scenery, costume, and grouping.

"And when they heard that Jesus was coming to Jerusalem, they took branches of palm trees and went forth to meet Him, and cried, 'Hosanna: Blessed is the King of Israel that cometh in the name of the Lord.'"

In the afternoon performances attention is riveted and the charm sustained by the dramatic scenes in the Life of Our Saviour. The stage is full of life and animation, the actors

acting and speaking. The first scene is a sort of allegorical picture of the Cross. Then follows the Council Chamber of the High Priests Caiaphas and Annas. Then again the Parting at Bethany. All the time there are musical and choral accompaniments, which heighten the effect of the pictures.

The scene of the Lord's Supper is productive of no little emotion. Certainly one would prefer to see the personages move instead of maintaining a death-like rigidity of attitude. But the picture itself is a faithful reproduction of Leonardo da Vinci's celebrated mural painting.

Afterwards we have " Jesus on the Mount of Olives," " The Betrayal of Christ," " Jesus before Pilate," " Jesus Scourged," " The Crown of Thorns," " Jesus Bearing the Cross," " Jesus Meeting his Sorrowing Mother," " The Crucifixion," " Jesus on the Cross," " The Holy Sepulchre," " The Resurrection," " The Ascension."

All these scenes are rendered with life-like reality. The Accusation of Christ is really acted ; likewise that of Christ before Pilate, when the entire scene is enacted. How can one adequately express all the pathos of the scene of the Crucifixion which appeals to one's very soul ? Certainly the Ascension was a soul-inspiring tableau.

As to appearance, the head of the leading actor was perfect, but although by no means of small stature we think that by the personage being an inch or two taller the effect would have been more striking. A mere optical effect, probably. Of course, much depends on imaginative power. We all picture to ourselves the noble figure as anatomically tall, elegant, perfect, and divinely beautiful, the meagre features denoting ineffable suffering.

But beyond this slight criticism the impersonation is admirable throughout. The features always express calm dignity and silent suffering. The other parts, with their advantages or defects, are well rendered. Whatever of the latter there may be cannot be obviated, as all the performers are the native villagers.

The costumes are perfectly correct in detail, and many, such as those of the high priests, extremely rich.

Relative to the musical portion, the combined choirs with organ accompaniment were so perfect as to give one a soul-searching thrill. Where there are female soli and wind instruments the illusion is not so complete.

CHAPTER VIII

EINSIEDELN AND CHILLON

EINSIEDELN! An Abbey more than a thousand years old—a church consecrated by the Angels—a miracle-performing image of the Virgin and her Child; such are the attractions that have brought, within less than a hundred years, ten million pilgrims to Our Lady's shrine at Einsiedeln. A thousand years and more ago, tradition tells, a young count, Meinrad, of the Hohenzollern blood lived at the cloister Reichenau on the river Rhine. Most deeply learned in all the Benedictine fathers taught, Meinrad was sent to educate the Anchorites, who had a little convent on the lake of Zurich. Meinrad, however, chose a hermit's life and built himself a chapel and a hut far up among the wilds of Canton Schwyz. The pious people followed him, to seek a blessing of the holy monk, so given up to God. Again the hermit fled; again a chapel and a hut was built and Meinrad's life was given wholly to contemplation and to prayer. Some twenty years and more, his lonely cell stood upon the very spot where stands the world-known monastery to-day.

Einsiedeln.

Two ravens, very black and very tame, were sole companions of his hermit days. But Meinrad's fame for Christian deeds and charity spread through all the valleys of the Alps and pious souls still sought him in the wilderness, to crave advice and listen to his words of Christian cheer. One day, two roving robbers, thinking Meinrad might have gold, as well as truth within his cell, came to the hermit's little home and asked for bread. The holy man gave bread and milk and wine, and, in return, the robbers murdered him and fled. The friendly ravens, burning to see their master's death avenged, followed the murderers far down the hills, across the lake,

and into Zurich. The men sought refuge in a little inn, but the ravens flapped their wings against the window panes and screamed aloud for hours. The murderers, who were superstitious men, thought this a warning from above, and hastened to confess the deed and tell the details of their crime. They suffered death upon the wheel. The little inn where they were found remained till modern times, and was long known as the Raven's Inn. It had two ravens, carved in black stone, built inside the walls. In later years the inn was changed, if not entirely rebuilt, and is in existence to-day.

The curious who may visit Zurich, still can see these black stone ravens, perched upon a balcony of the house and looking towards the lake. For half-a-century, at least, Meinrad's hut and chapel stood unused. Then a Strasburg count, who wished to live where holy Meinrad once had lived, repaired the hut and built a convent large enough for many Benedictine monks who followed him.

Still later, other patrons, other Benedictines came and set about to build a princely church upon the very spot where Meinrad's cell had stood. In September of 948 the temple was at last complete. Two bishops and a host of knights and nobles came from Germany to consecrate it to the Lord; and then occurred—if Papal bulls, and Bishops' oaths can be believed—the miracle that placed the monastery among the famous churches of the world.

Leo VIII was Pope, and learning of the angels' consecration of the church, confirmed the story of the miracle in an official bull, addressed to all the faithful of the Roman Church.

"We, Leo, Pope, servant of the servants of God, do announce to all the present and future believers in the church of God—

"That our reverend brother and associate Bishop at Constance, Conrad by name, in the presence of our dear son Otto, the Emperor, and his wife, the Empress Adelheid, together with many other princes, has made known before our apostolic chair, that on the 14th of September, 948, he was called to a

Photo by *Wehrli*

ZURICH CATHEDRAL

certain place within his diocese, named Meinrad's cell, in order to consecrate a chapel to the honor of the holy, glorified Mother of God, the Virgin Mary. But when he rose, as accustomed, to pray at midnight, so he told us, he heard with other godly ones, a surpassingly lovely song, and by more minute investigation ascertained indeed, that the angels with like song and order as were employed by bishops in the same ceremony, were consecrating the same chapel. When, therefore, on the morrow all was in readiness, the bishop yet hesitated until towards noon, but the people came to the chapel and pressed within to witness the consecration. As the bishop still continually refused to proceed, relating the miraculous visitation, they blamed him harshly till he really began the dedication. Then, 'immediately and clearly, resounded a voice three times.'

"'Brother, desist; for see, it is already consecrated by God.'

"At this the people, frightened, esteemed the revelation of the bishop as true and holy and believed from then on that the chapel had been divinely dedicated." Leo further declared his own conviction of the truth of all the bishops said and forbade that any man should think to consecrate the church anew. Declared, as well, a full remission of the sins of all who penitentially should visit at this mountain shrine. From that time on, the pious Catholics from Switzerland, from France, from Alsace and Lorraine, and Germany, made pilgrimages to the spot declared as holy ground. Princes and peasants came by thousands and hundreds of thousands every year.

With some, Jerusalem itself was scarcely more desirable to see than was this monastery. The savings of months and years were often hoarded up, to pay expenses on the way. Long, weary journeys were made on foot, through summer's heat or winter's cold and storm, to visit Einsiedeln. Princes endowed the monastery with lands and gold. Nobles took on the order of the brotherhood and left the royal court's magnificence, to wear the cap and cowl at holy Meinrad's cell.

The mountain waste was turned into a pleasant valley. The Abbey grew from Meinrad's little wooden hut into a mountain palace, with marble aisles and rows of monkish cells and altars, rich with silver and with gold, filled with the holy relics of the past.

Tradition added all that history had grudgingly refused. Jesus, the faithful worshippers were told, had once been there in human form and tasted of the waters flowing from the fountain near the shrine.

Since then, the waters had been blessed of God and wrought great miracles. The blind, from drinking there, were made to see; the lame, to walk; the deaf, to hear; the lepers had been healed. The Abbots were, in course of time, made princes of the Roman Empire and exercised, within the church, a power not limited, except by the Pope at Rome. The Abbey's great renown went out to many lands. Einsiedeln became the Lourdes of the Swiss. Hundreds of years have passed since then, and still the mighty tide of pilgrims pours into the Alps. Time and again the ancient monastery has fed the flames that glared upon the rocks, the mountains, and the ice. Again the earnest, still-believing church restored its towers and beautified its walks.

War came and brought its contribution to the Abbey's woes. In 1798, the French troops pressed to almost every valley of the Alps, robbing and burning as they went. Einsiedeln suffered from their depredations, too. The buildings were in part destroyed, altars were robbed and paintings carried off. The little image of the Virgin and her Child escaped. This was the greatest treasure that the monastery contained. It was the image Meinrad used in the forest, 900 years before—a present from the Abbess Hildegard.

The monks, on hearing that the French had come, rushed to the woods and hid the image in a crevice of the rocks. They left a copy, though a very cunning one, remaining in the Abbey for the French to steal and send to Paris as a treasure

worthy of the gods. When the French left, the Abbey was again restored ; again, the wonder-working image, hidden in the rocks, was brought forth, to do its miracles.

Six times the Abbey had been burned and every time the image had escaped, to receive the homage of the pilgrim multitudes who look upon the thing as something more than mere wood, or stone, or even gold ;—a blessed thing, possessed of power to heal the body and the soul. The church and abbey, as it stands since 1798, is commodious and rather grand, built in the Italian style, and not unlike, in character and form, St. Peter's Church in Rome. The walls inside and ceilings are burdened with a mass of gilding, many paintings and hundreds of emblematic figures, mostly in plaster, hanging out from every cornice, niche, and column. The marble altars, and there are many right and left, have an Italian look, and some of them are excellent. The holy chapel, standing in the nave and near the doors, is of blackest marble, intermixed with grey. It has some pictures and a *bas relief ;* but most of all, to him who is a pilgrim or a devotee, it has the image of the Virgin and her Child—a little, homely, wooden figure, black as soot, and crowned with precious jewels.

This is the central figure of the monastery. Toward it thousands of pilgrims' eyes are turned, as turned the shepherds' eyes toward Bethlehem. To make a pilgrim-age, to see the Virgin and her Child—this is the longing of many a thousand Catholic hearts. As it was done ten centuries ago, so it is done to-day. A picturesque railway takes you there from lake Zurich or from the Arth-Righi side. But the simple pilgrims continue to go on foot.

Pilgrimage.

On days of celebrated feasts, the crowd of pilgrims rushing to the Zurich boats, is worthy of remark. Whole droves of men and women, old and young, crowd to the forward decks. Hundreds have never left their village gates before and stare with wonder at the boats, the people, the water, and the shore. Indeed, the ordinary pilgrim of this modern day is not the

fairest sample of the church's best intelligence. The very poor, the ignorant and the superstitious compose the greater part of these long human trains that seek Our Lady's shrine at Einsiedeln.

Their costumes vary as the towns, the cantons, and the countries whence they come. Two features, though, distinguish each and all—a cotton umbrella and a string of beads. The former is their shade on sunny days, their tent on rainy ones; their walking staff and shield. The latter is their rosary, where busy fingers count the prayers the busier lips have said. The women wear red handkerchiefs in turban shape about the head; the men are rigged out in their Sunday's best. The scene is not unpicturesque, especially should the day be fair and nature beautiful. The farther Alps are white with snow; the low hills by the lake are green with forest and with vine; the bright sun shines; the deep blue lake is calm; the pilgrims chant a prayer—it is the praise of God.

At Richtersweil, the pious train winds up among the Alps. At every turn of road, at every bridge and stream, a wayside cross appears and here the pilgrim kneels, crosses himself, and prays. The way is long and steep and even pilgrim feet grow tired and worn and bleed. At last, the Abbey's spires appear, and then the walls and windows of the monastery. A prayer of joy, of thankfulness, bursts forth from every lip. Tired feet are tired no more; the pilgrims hurry on and drink from waters tasted by the Lord.

The precious fountain has its fourteen spouts and not a legend tells at which of these the Saviour drank; but pilgrims drink at all by turns, then mount the granite steps, kneel at the porch, and pray. The Abbey's doors swing wide apart; the devotee is standing in the vaulted nave. Again he kneels before the mystery of a thousand years. He hears the organ's solemn strains—the dark monks chanting mass. To him the world is left behind. At last, his eyes rest on the Virgin and her Child. His hand has touched the marble where the image

rests; his lips have breathed repentance for his sins; the priest has given a blessing and a prayer, and he is free to start life's journey all anew. His pilgrimage is done. He rises, looks on the splendour that is heaped around and feels within his heart this temple is of God, a house not made with hands.

Einsiedeln is a village made of inns for men not satisfied to eat the bread of life, alone; as furnished by the abbey-priests. Each house, almost each hut, is ornamented with a gastronomic sign, inviting men to come, eat, drink, and be merry while they may. The prices range to suit the peasant or the prince, and the lower the price, the higher the room. Some pilgrims get no room at all; but sleep, contentedly enough, out in the open air, till early bells invite them to the morning mass.

The Benedictine Order no longer has the influence, wealth, strength, and fame it had in olden times. When John XXI was Pope, 1334, the Order had produced some twenty emperors, ten empresses, a hundred kings and queens, seventy princes, and a score of popes. Its wealth had been in fair proportion to its rank. Its abbeys were the largest, and by far the richest, in the land. To-day Einsiedeln, with a hundred monks and anchorites, is all that is left in Switzerland.

The Benedictines.

The war that raged between the ancient Church and modern State, that rages still in Switzerland, as in other European lands, has left the Benedictines little save the memories of the past.

These memories have been treasured up in manuscript, in book, tradition, and in song. Einsiedeln has hosts of records and of books that learned men pronounce invaluable;—curious old books in manuscript—illuminated books—parchment and vellum books—with bindings made of wood and brass; a choral book, the work of twenty years; books more than worth their weight in silver and in gold; old histories and records; tales of centuries and centuries ago; hundreds of Bibles in many tongues, from many lands, written long

years before the days of Wickliff, Cranmer, or King James. To study these old parchments, records, histories—to guard them from the vulgar eye and hand—to shrive the pilgrim penitents—to train some pious youths—this seems to be the only work that is left the Benedictine brothers of to-day. The Abbey, though the State has taken from it power, riches, lands, has still enough—enough and yet to spare, to build another home, a newer one across the seas, far out among the prairies of the west. To this new Canaan, the Benedictine brother turns his eye, in case annihilation should be threatened here again, as was the case in 1848, when Catholic rebellion suffered such disastrous overthrow in Switzerland.

The following translation of an original document will throw an interesting light upon the manners and custom of the period—

(From the Diary of Noble Jean-Jacques de Staal, who belonged to a well-known family of Soleure or Solothurn), in which place he was born in 1588) : "At my time of life, I would not hope to live very much longer, so I began to think more about the salvation of my immortal being and of my future felicity. My cherished spouse, whom I had the misfortune to lose, repeatedly stated that we ought to undertake together a pilgrimage to the all-powerful shrine of the Mother of Our Lord at Einsiedeln, the most Blessed Virgin. Temporal matters had always compelled me to defer carrying out this pious resolution, until it was too late, and my dear Helène departed this life without having accomplished this duty agreeable to the Lord. This neglect weighed heavily on my conscience, for I could not help reflecting that my wife must have been a sufferer thereby, and that her trials in purgatory must have been prolonged in consequence, and her admittance to the sojourn of the most happy thus delayed. In order to repair the evil as far as lay in my power, and, moreover, the weather having turned out mild and pleasant, I thereupon resolved, although we were at the fag end of the

A Visit to Einsiedeln in 1643.

season, to undertake a pilgrimage, not merely to the Abbey of Einsiedeln, but to other places of benediction. I proposed to visit different cloisters and other holy houses in order to offer up pious supplication.

" The third of November of this year, 1643, on all Saints' Day, I set out on my pilgrimage in the usual way, attired in modest habits, proceeding on foot, with a staff in my hand. I had entrusted my small family, my home and my affairs, to the care and vigilance of my brother Juste.

" First of all, I directed my steps towards Beinwyl, where I arrived at night after a hard day's walking, in the course of which I had crossed the Passwang. Here I performed my devotions and passed the first night. Next day I continued my pilgrimage as far as Dornach, where I hastened to the Capucin fathers. At this place I did not fail to visit the chapel erected on the battlefield in souvenir of the victory of our ancestors, and the piles of skulls furnished new proof of the vanity of this world, for who could say of any one of them whether it belonged to some noble knight or to a simple landsquenet !

" Thence I stretched a point as far as the residence of Monsignor the prince-bishop, who at that time was holding court at Birseck. There much goodness and benevolence was shown me. I was lauded, and this good treatment further strengthened my pious resolutions. I also visited my old friend and protector the high vicar of Rämstein, who invited me to lunch with him. At first I was loth to consent, deeming that the place of a pilgrim was not at the table of a high vicar, seeing that he ought to nourish himself with roots and vegetables and quench his thirst with water. However, I was unable to resist his friendly insistance and I promised myself a more strict observance of my fast later on.

" The generous wine of my friend warmed my heart, and I relieved my mind by unburdening myself to my friend, telling him how I deplored all the misfortunes that had visited me of late.

" Thereupon the worthy prelate refilled my goblet and exhorted me to banish melancholy.

" As I entered into particulars concerning my domestic affairs, he once more comforted me by saying: ' It seems to me, noble Jean-Jacques, that which would be most salutary for both your body and soul, which are steeped in chagrin, would be to marry again, to take unto you a third spouse who would take charge of your home and children, and doubtless dispel the melancholia which appeareth to have settled upon you.'

" I repelled such a joking insinuation in a serious and dignified manner, for on the one hand, the wife who had unfortunately been taken from me could never be replaced, as her virtue, piety, sweetness of disposition, and spirit of economy and activity were without equal. On the other, it was more becoming of my age to think of my soul rather than of the flesh.

" Thereupon my friend and protector insisted no more and kept quiet, though I noticed that he dissimulated a smile the while.

" We parted with renewed expressions of mutual friendship, and of gratitude on my part for the welcome extended to me. I pursued my journey to the magnificent Abbey of Wettingen in the Freiamt.

" A short time previously the French and Weimarians had been surprised and attacked at their headquarters at Duttlingen, in the Black Forest, by the Imperialist troops. Several superior officers had been made prisoners, and out of 12,000 men who made up the army, only 4,000 at the most had managed to escape to Alsatia, the land of the prince-bishop, where they had taken up their winter quarters.

" *Pro momento*, all reports of war in the country beyond Bâle and Frickthal had ceased. I nevertheless was witness of enough to bring tears to my eyes. Just as in the land of the prince-bishop, villages had been destroyed by fire and populations stricken with famine and disease wherever the club and sword had not worked complete ruin. In the woods and

amongst the ruins of houses, vagabonds and other dangerous characters had taken up their abode, determined to ransack all that the soldiers had left untouched. In crossing the Bötzberg I was often compelled to give play to my staff in order to defend myself against foxes, which harassed the poor wayfarer in broad daylight.

" All this was not calculated to restore serenity to my soul. My thoughts dwelt constantly on my children who were as orphans now. Other cares oppressed me concerning my fief and other property in the Valley of Delémont. No doubt heavier charges were to be imposed on me, for the remnants of Kanofky's cavalry, enraged on account of their defeat, would ravage and pillage everywhere.

" When I recalled to mind M. de Rämstein's remarks, I was near upon losing control of my temper. To think that, with such a prospect of misery before me, he could have tried to joke with me ! For with his capacity and experience of the world such an old hand could not have seriously thought of advising an aged widower of fifty-nine to get married again.

" At length, pretty late in the third day of my pilgrimage, I knocked at the portal of the antique and superb monastery of Wettingen and asked for modest hospitality for the night. I considered it advisable to conceal my name and condition this time, otherwise the worthy abbot would have bidden me to his sumptuous table, and if I had set out on a pilgrimage it was not for the purpose of indulging in joys and magnificences, nor to be honoured beyond my merit. I had taken my staff more with a view to chastise my body, to fast, and to offer up prayers before the holy images in the blessed sanctuaries.

" I was led to the *refectorium*, where I supped on a morsel of bread and a glass of wine. Then the chamber intended for pilgrims was shown me, of whom many were already stretched out asleep on straw. Sleep was but little my lot, because vermin assailed me at once. I accepted this plague with

humility and forbearance in the hope that account would be taken of it in the Kingdom of Heaven.

" The following morning, having attended mass in the superb chapel of the convent, I set out again on my journey without having been recognized. It was my intention to proceed to Zurich, to the Convent of Wurmsbach, of which Scholastica, my brother Gédéon's eldest daughter, had just been appointed lady-superior.

" The wine this year was particularly good, heaven be praised! The crops had not only been abundant, but the quality was altogether superior. Thus, quite as an exception, one was able to taste a good quality of new wine of the borders of the Lake of Zurich. Therefore great joy reigned everywhere, and in all the villages. From one end of the lake to the other, there was naught else than feasting and drinking, dances and divertissements without end. Old and young, men and women and young girls alike, indulged in drinking the juice of the rich grape that heaven had so bountifully supplied this year.

" But villages in ashes and devastated fields were more in harmony with my frame of mind than the feasting and jollification.

" In a village called Meilen, a few leagues beyond Zurich, an aged man accosted me and inquired whether some great grief had overtaken me in this time of general feasting; because, said he, I was the only one who went by the way wearing a mournful countenance. I replied: ' While joy and happiness reign here, elsewhere are misery, despair, and fear. How can a man, upon whom the Lord's hand is weighing, do otherwise than brood over his troubles ? '

" The venerable man spoke up : ' It is for that reason that the Lord has sent good wine, in order that those who are burdened with sorrow may find solace from their cares.'

" He thereupon took me by the hand and led me to a pavilion which stood amidst the vines, and with friendly words bade me enter and repose my weary limbs, while a

pretty, saucy wench brought a jug of *Sauser*, for such was the name of the new wine of the country, and with a graceful curtsey placed it on the table.

" I refreshed myself with a few mouthfuls of this wine, while the foam was still fresh upon it. Meanwhile my kind host asked me the cause of my troubles.

" ' My wife, my faithful companion, who during many years has been my consolation, has been taken from me by death,' I said.

" ' Be consoled ! If she was—that which I do not doubt—such a distinguished lady as you say, she is now tasting eternal felicity and is interceding in your behalf before the throne of God.'

" ' I am a victim of the furies of war, and my lands have been ransacked and ravaged.'

" ' That which the Lord has given can the Lord take away. He whose field has been destroyed should not repine and remain with folded arms ; but proceed at once and put it in order, for a fine crop may yet grow upon it.'

" Thus spoke this wise man, and the new wine was drunk during this interview, and I felt myself greatly comforted, but still more by the good words I had heard.

" I thanked my host for his courtesy and begged to know his name, to which he replied :

" ' My name is of no concern. If ever we meet again, which I think unlikely, as I am full of years, fortune will have smiled on you again, I am sure. Experience has taught me that fortune is a wheel that continually turns.'

" The Convent of Wurmsbach is finely situated on the lake, at little less than an hour's distance from the Castle of Rappeswyl. I met with a cordial reception from my niece Scholastica, whom I congratulated on her recent appointment.

" I could not help her entertaining me sumptuously in the parlour, with spiced wines and the fritters the nuns prepare in such an appetising way.

" After a suitable delay I took leave of my niece the Lady

Abbess, and proceeded to the church there to make my devotions, and thence to the convent inn in order to repose my body from the fatigues of a pilgrimage, to which I was little accustomed. It was at the latter place that I encountered an old acquaintance, M. Baudoin of Hertenstein, from Lucerne, who had brought his daughter to the convent school. Like unto myself Hertenstein was in favour with the prince-bishop and possessed considerable estates in that prelate's land. Thus our chief conversation was about the unjust war and the exile of Monsignor. On the other hand, I learned from my friend, to my great satisfaction, the departure from the Valley of Delémont of Kanofky's cavaliers.

" We remained together until a late hour, discoursing on the closer union of the seven Catholic cantons and an alliance with the Emperor of the League. But, for my part, I victoriously opposed the idea, and for decisive reasons, as being fatal to the entire Confederation. The Helvetic corps thus divided in two would soon have fallen victim to its adversaries.

" The next morning Hertenstein bade me accept the donkey his daughter had ridden, and persuaded me to accompany him to Lucerne via the Albis and Zug. But wishing to remain steadfast to my vow and go as a true pilgrim to the source of grace, to Einsiedeln, I firmly declined the offer, but promised to pause at Lucerne on my way back.

" ' Who knows,' he added maliciously, ' but that some young girl of Lucerne will come to the assistance of your protector Rämstein's counsels ? The Lucerne damsels have the reputation of darting glances from their wicked eyes, capable of inflaming an older heart than that of our noble Jean-Jacques de Staal.'

" With this pleasantry we parted, and I accepted my niece's kind offer to be rowed to the Convent of Lachen, on the other side of the lake. From there I climbed Mount-Etzel, and from the opposite side gained the princely abbey which possesses the antique and miraculous image, which is visited

by pilgrims of all countries, and who leave at this shrine their heavy burden of sins.

" Even to me, unworthy being, the prodigious virtue of this place soon manifested itself. I now contemplated the church and imposing monastery which I had known in former times as the obscure hermitage of Meinrad.

" As soon as I had proceeded with my devotions, prayed with fervour, and drank at each one of the fourteen pipes of the celebrated spring, I seemed to be another being. I felt in particular that my wife no longer required my regrets. My other sorrows seemed lighter to bear. My old fifty-nine year bones appeared to me more supple and rejuvenated by many years. Now as a true Christian I could only ascribe this change to the miraculous influence of this blessed spot, to my prayers, and to the faithful accomplishment of my vows.

" Having conscientiously fulfilled my religious duties, I started off in numerous company, pilgrims of German and French languages. We descended by Rothenthurm to Schwytz and Brunnen, where I took a boat for Lucerne.

" At Lucerne I was welcomed with much grace by Hertenstein. I was given the best room in the house and was sumptuously entertained. What charmed me more than the soft feather-beds with their silk coverlids, the odoriferous cheese-cakes and sparkling Asti wine from over the St. Gotthard, was the affection shown me by the whole family. I was particularly charmed with the eldest girl, Maria Francesca, who, contrary to the custom of those of her age, appeared to like our staid discourses, and who did not scorn to converse with me alone, sometimes on light sometimes on grave subjects. I found that this young lady, without being a beauty, differed from other girls with saucy eyes, more particularly by the wisdom of her intelligence. I noticed, too, that she remained true to the German costume, whereas in our city ladies of any pretension were slaves to French fashions."

At Ittingen, near Frauenfeld, there remains in good preservation what was once the home of the Carthusians, from

1162 to 1464. At present it is private property, owned by Colonel Fehr. The chapel contains an altar and beautifully carved stalls. Most of the beauties of this chapel were destroyed during the Reformation. The monks were the first to produce a rosy light wine, still famous in Eastern Switzerland, and called Karthaüser.

There are other shrines, none the less revered by visitors, but for quite different reasons, the historic castles, to which the pilgrim devoutly bends his steps. The Castle of Chillon, made universally known by Byron, is one of them, and of late years it has been the object of much study on the part of archæologists.

Chillon.

It may be of interest to give a few words of explanation of the methods adopted in carrying out the restoration some few years since. Briefly, then, what the architect, M. A. Naef, cantonal archæologist, has had constantly in view, has been, first and foremost, to preserve every stone and mark and vestige that could in any way throw light on the history of the castle and on the numerous transformations to which it has been subjected. As a fortress, and later as a residence, then as a seat of government, as a prison, and as an arsenal, the castle had been more pulled about and altered than almost any existing building that one can name, and whose history is known. Certainly a Roman fortress, though probably only of small extent, it had been enlarged and re-arranged by successive Dukes of Savoy from the twelfth to the sixteenth centuries; then by the Bernese, who made it the seat of their governor or bailli of the Pays de Vaud; lastly, by the Vaudois themselves, who made great holes through the interior walls for the passage of cannon when they converted it into an arsenal in 1836. These breaches have naturally been walled up again, and the fragments of thirteenth and fourteenth century doorways have been picked out of the walls or from under the ground and replaced in their original positions, or missing fragments

supplied by copying those which remain. Layers of plaster and whitewash have been scraped off the walls, bringing to light the long-buried original decorations beneath, and where any interest attaches to the designs on the plaster this has been carefully removed to ornament bare walls in other parts of the castle, as, for example, the remarkable drawings representing bears in all sorts of positions, now to be seen in the guard-room to the left of the entrance.

The work has been a task of the utmost difficulty and delicacy, to piece together stone by stone the fabric as it was under the greatest Dukes of Savoy, and at the same time to leave visible the traces not only of earlier work but of later alterations. Thus the wide passages broken through the walls of the great hall in 1836 have each been outlined with a dotted line and the date inscribed on the wall. The greatest difficulty arose from the fact that the floor and ceiling of this hall have at different times stood at no less than three distinct levels, and some of the rooms have had as many different sets of windows and doors. The problem, therefore, has been to put the apartments into the state represented by the most important of these traces, and at the same time to make the successive changes plain to the visitor and to future antiquarians by marks and dates by which the history of the castle can be read on its own walls.

It is almost needless to add, that every part of the soil beneath the castle, down to the very rock, has been excavated and examined. These excavations have led to many discoveries of great interest: the walls of the Roman fort, and of a chapel of the same age with its semicircular apse. Vaults hitherto unknown have been cleared of earth and rubbish, and visitors can see at the present moment the remains of one of these, with its central columns, far beneath the old level of the court immediately behind the three semicircular towers on the land side of the castle. Here, too, is to be seen a very ancient stone slope, or glacis, supporting the central tower and the inner and older ward of the tower.

Not far from Geneva is the Château de Coppet, which offers no special architectural interest. The home of Mme. de Staël belongs at present to the Haussonville family, who spend the *belle saison* there, but do not on that account forbid tourists free access to the domain. The principal apartments of the château remain in the state in which they were left by Mme. de Staël. Everything here recalls her memory and that of her family.

Madame de Staël.

" The parents of ' Corinne,' as well as the lady herself, do not seem to have minded the fatigue of sitting for their portraits. They are here in marble and on canvas, in every variety of costume and attitude. These portraits and busts are of various degrees of value. But it is a pleasure to contemplate them, in this sense, that they confirm the traditional idea which has been formed of the banker, Jacques Necker, of his wife, Susanne Curchod, and their *enfant terrible*, Mme. de Staël, from what we knew of their lives and works. This Necker in Sèvres biscuit-ware, with imperious brow, erect mien, and stately presence, is the very man who so incensed the Comte d'Artois by preventing him from increasing his private fortune at the expense of the public treasury ; it is the precise financier who replied to a noble lady who solicited him for a pension of a thousand crowns : ' A thousand crowns, Madame ! It is the taxation of a village ! ' Equally characteristic is the portrait of Susanne Curchod, with her pinched expression and her disquieting eyes. You see in her the virtuous ex-schoolmistress, the woman of cultivated mind and high ambition, who thus defined the education she intended to give her daughter : ' To make of her a masterpiece of maternal love, knowing everything, and withal pious, enthusiastic in her imagination, modest in speech, prudent in her conduct, a model of purity and sagacity.

" The abundant imagery of Mme. de Staël which surrounds us, the portrait representing her be-ribboned in so singular

a fashion, in which we see her in the character of Corinne at Cape Misenas, playing the lute in the presence of Lord Byron and other distinguished noblemen, calls up a personality quite other than that which Susanne Curchod endeavoured to form. Is education a chimerical art ? "

Following my guide, I traverse the various rooms of the castle. In this salon, where is preserved Mme. de Staël's harpsichord, are various comedy properties used by the guests in the performance of " Zaire," " Phèdre," and " Mérope " in M. Necker's library on the ground floor. Here are offerings from the frequenters of Coppet : Byron, Châteaubriand, Prince Augustus of Prussia, Prosper de Barante, Monti, General Laharpe, and Benjamin Constant. Here, again, is Mme. de Staël's own chamber, with her monumental bed, and beside it the room reserved for Mme. Récamier, a mere closet, with its little bed hung with green silk.

Mme. de Staël began by detesting Coppet. " I don't like this country at all," she wrote to her husband in 1790. " We live here in the most awful silence and quiet. I shall die of this horrible inanition." By degrees, her feelings changed. She tasted the charm of silence and of peace. When she had managed to draw her friends to Coppet, she began to love the place and prefer it to every other. Before leaving the château, as I traversed the splendid park, with its venerable trees, which stretches to the northward, I understood this preference. The silence seemed to me delicious and enchanting, the peace heavenly rather than awful. How happily one might die, in this inanition which Corinne thought so horrible.

Schloss Habsburg.

At Meggen, near Lucerne, is Habsburg Castle, a mere ruin, a vestige of what was once the summer residence of Rudolf Count of Habsburg, founder of the present Austrian dynasty. The original Schloss Habsburg was on top of the Wülpelsberg, in Canton Aarau, and its ruins still remain. The old historical castle at Meggen was destroyed by the Lucerners in 1352. It was at this castle that occurred the incident that induced

Rudolf to present his horse to the priest. A painting of this episode may be seen under the porch of the parochial church at Meggen.

Similar historical ruins are to be seen in all parts of the country; the Seethal and Canton Aargau are rich in these vestiges of another age.

The National Museum.

The National Museum in Zurich is remarkable among historical museums of the world, not only for the interest and value of its contents, but for the admirably appropriate and tasteful manner in which they are displayed. This refers equally to the building itself and to the arrangement of its interior: the design is a harmonious blending of many characteristic bits from ancient edifices, so that the exterior is in itself a museum of architectural antiquities. Inside, we find the principal floor fitted up with rooms reproducing apartments from the fourteenth century onward, such as the council-room of Mellingen, 1467, rooms from the Fraumünster Abbey, 1489 and 1507, a room from Schloss Arbon, dated 1515, and the Pestalozzi chamber from Chiavenna, of 1585. Whenever possible, these rooms have been fitted up with the original furniture, and great care has been taken to introduce no incongruous feature. The corridors contain collections of articles from the same periods, and the Ceramic collection is especially fine. One of its greatest treasures is the Zwingli beaker. The central feature of the museum is the Waffenhalle, or hall of arms, armour, and warlike trophies. This, like all other parts of the museum, is remarkable for the skill displayed in its arrangement. The museum, of course, contains many other departments, including the art industries collection, and the Roman and prehistoric section on the ground floor.

Photo by *Frith*

ANGERSTEIN CASTLE

CHAPTER IX

THE JUDICIAL SYSTEM

The Law Courts.

JUSTICE is administered by the following courts: (*a*) For the whole canton, by the Cantonal Tribunal and the Juge d'Instruction (for criminal investigations); (*b*) In each of the nineteen districts, by the District Court (Tribunal de District); (*c*) In each of the sixty Cercles into which the canton is divided, by a magistrate called Juge de Paix. Each municipality has also power to impose fines for petty offences in violation of police regulations.

(1) The Cantonal Tribunal consists of nine judges, elected every four years by the Grand Council or legislative authority of the canton. They are mostly of the legal profession, and are re-eligible for election on the expiration of their original term of office.[1]

This Tribunal is the supreme court of judicature in the canton for all questions regarding the application of the cantonal laws; it has, however, no original jurisdiction in these cases, but only acts as an appellate court for the purpose of reviewing judgments of the inferior Cantonal Tribunals.

In criminal affairs a division of the Court, consisting of three judges, forms the Cour de Cassation pénale for appeals from the Tribunaux Criminels, or district Criminal Courts.

Another Chamber of three judges, under the name of Tribunal d'Accusation, performs functions very analogous to those of the Grand Jury in England.

[1] *The Swiss Confederation*, Sir F. Adams (Macmillan & Co.). Dr. Dubs' *Offentliche Recht des Schw. Eidgenossenschaft.* Droz's *Instruction Civique.*

(2) Juge d'Instruction. This magistrate has the superintendence of criminal affairs prior to the indictment; he either instructs the Judge de Paix or himself orders all the necessary measures for tracing and arresting offenders.

Every month he sends up to the public prosecutor (Procureur-Général) the list of all criminal cases in course of investigation in the Canton.

(3) District Courts (Tribunaux de District). A District Court consists of a president and four judges, appointed by the Cantonal Tribunal for a term of four years. As long as they remain in office the members of the Court, if they happen to be advocates, have to renounce the practice of their profession.

President of the Court. As a judge sitting alone the president has jurisdiction both in civil and criminal matters; he further makes interlocutory orders in the suits brought before him or before the District Court, thus deciding, subject to appeal, all incidental questions.

Sitting alone, he decides questions involving the presumption of life in the case of persons who have been absent for more than six years from the canton, the emancipation of minors, and the registration of donations *inter vivos;* he hears all petitions presented by heirs claiming the *beneficium inventarii* before accepting a succession; he entertains all petitions relating to bankruptcy or filed by the wife of an insolvent husband for the recovery, management, and control of her own personal property and other matters.

The President further tries and decides all suits where the amount in dispute is between 100 fr. and 500 fr.

In criminal matters his jurisdiction extends over offences punishable by a maximum of ten days' imprisonment, 500 fr. fine, or an official and public rebuke.

The Court. The District Court sits as a civil tribunal, a criminal court, and a police court.

As a civil tribunal, its jurisdiction extends to all suits where the claim amounts to 500 fr. and more in value (those

which are carried directly into the Cantonal Tribunal being excepted) ; it decides every dispute in connection with real estate ; and, finally, all suits concerning the civil status of persons, divorce, etc.,

The law on marriage and divorce being a federal law, it would, strictly speaking, have been more logical to carry all actions to which its application might give rise before the Cantonal Tribunal and thence upon appeal to the Federal Tribunal ; but when the law was under discussion, the Grand Council, looking at the question of expense, on the one hand, and, on the other, considering that a judge living in the neighbourhood of the parties was more likely to be better qualified to decide upon such matters than an utter stranger, totally unacquainted with the circumstances of the litigants, gave the preference to an entirely opposite course. The jurisdiction of the District Court is maintained as it existed before the introduction of the federal law, and the appeal passing over the Cantonal Tribunal now goes direct to the Federal Tribunal.

This is a most striking instance of the manifold complications which are continually arising owing to the co-existence of federal and cantonal laws on matters closely connected.

The grounds upon which a divorce may be granted are determined by the federal law, but the consequences of the divorce as regards the settlement of all financial questions, alimony, education, and care and maintenance of the children, are governed by the cantonal law exclusively. It therefore follows that, in so far as the divorce alone is concerned, the final decision upon appeal rests with the Federal Tribunal, whereas for all accessory matters, such as those specified above, the highest jurisdiction belongs to the Cantonal Tribunal.

An action for divorce, which is brought as a whole before the inferior court, may therefore, if the parties are not satisfied with the decision, branch off upon appeal into two perfectly distinct suits.

For the trial of criminal cases the Court is formed by the

President and two of the four judges. There is also a jury of nine persons.

The jury list is prepared in the following manner: Once in every four years, the electors of each township forming part of the district meet together in the month of November and elect the jurymen in the proportion of one to each hundred inhabitants counting for a hundred. There are a number of exemptions, and citizens of over sixty years of age, or whose names stood on the last list, as well as such as are disabled by sickness or permanent infirmity, may, upon application, have their names struck off the list.

Juries.

As soon as the President of the Court receives information that a criminal case is about to come on, he appoints a day for the impanelling of the jury, and gives notice of it to the public prosecutor, to the witnesses for the prosecution, to the accused, and to his counsel.

On the appointed day the President causes numbers corresponding to the names of those jurymen who stand on the general list to be cast into a ballot-box, and with the assistance of the Clerk of the Court, in the presence of the parties interested, he draws thirty-one numbers from the ballot-box; a list comprising thirty-one names is thus made; a journal of the proceedings is kept, and a copy of the same is forwarded to the public prosecutor and to the accused. Within the three following days the President strikes out nine names from the list and chooses two substitutes from the rest; notice is given to the accused, to whom an equal term of three days is granted for proceeding in the same way; there thus remain nine jurymen. If the accused are several in number, they, or rather their respective advocates, act in concert; but if they are unable to agree, they refer to the President of the Court, who has again to resort to the ballot-box.

The jurymen elect their own foremen.

A peculiarity of the law worthy of notice lies in the provision that when the accused pleads guilty, the jury may be dispensed

with at the trial, provided he files a petition to this effect in the office of the Clerk of the Court.

The summons served upon each member of the jury mentions neither the name of the accused nor the crime for which he is indicted.

(*a*) Juge de Paix. The official obligations of this magistrate are numerous; he is brought into constant contact with the public, and should possess not only a practical knowledge of the law but also tact and discrimination. A thorough Juge de Paix acquires great influence, and for this reason, in spite of the insufficiency of the salary, whenever a vacancy occurs the candidates for office are numerous.

Juge de Paix and Court of the Justice de Paix.

Before any civil suit is allowed by law to go before the Court for judgment, the would-be litigants are bound to put in an appearance before the Juge de Paix, whose mission it is to endeavour to reconcile the parties, and if he is a man of energy and tact success very often attends his efforts, especially in the more remote parts of the canton.

In his capacity of judge, he decides frankly and without appeal all suits the subject matter of which is under 100 fr. in value.

He further settles summarily all disputes as to wages within the above limit between masters and their servants, artisans, or workmen.

All disputes between travellers and hotel or boarding-house keepers.

All disputes between travellers and carriers as to loss of or damage to luggage.

All disputes between public porters or cabmen and those who hire their services.

The Juge de Paix presides at the proving of wills, he orders the acceptance or repudiation of successions where the heirs have not claimed the *beneficium inventarii*, and the delivery of the estate to the heirs alike under a testamentary or an intestate succession.

He may be further called upon from time to time to interfere in family dissensions of an acute character.

In criminal matters his functions are analogous to those of the Juge d'Instruction, whose subordinate, however, he is. Finally, he passes sentence on certain classes of minor offenders.

The multiplicity of the avocations of the Juges de Paix explains the reason for their being comparatively numerous in so small a country as the Canton of Vaud.

(*b*) Court of the Justice de Paix. This is a peculiar institution. Though a court of law, no suit can be brought before it; it has the supervision and control of guardians and looks after the interests of minors and of those persons who from mental infirmity are unable to manage their own affairs. Its action is of great importance, though in a limited sphere; it takes in a great measure the same position with regard to wards also. It consists of four assessors, and is presided over by the Juge de Paix.

Justice de Paix.

The mode of proceeding in civil cases is governed by the Code de Procédure Civile, adopted on the 25th November, 1869, and subsequently modified by several distinct legislative enactments introducing sundry amendments tending all more or less to simplify procedure and diminish costs.

In all civil actions, proceedings are instituted by the issue of a summons on behalf of the plaintiff, citing the defendant to appear before the competent judge.

This summons, signed, sealed, and delivered by the judge, is notified by the huissier (usher) of the Court to the defendant, who is thus officially informed of the nature of the claim brought against him.

On the appointed day the litigants appear before the judge, who, after giving them a hearing, endeavours to induce them to arrive at an understanding. They must attend personally or by proxy, and no professional advocates are at this stage allowed to appear on their behalf. If the attempt fails, as it

very often does, the judge certifies in writing to that effect, and the suit enters into a new place, and can only then be said to have really commenced as a contentious matter.

Within the sixty days following, the plaintiff files his statement of claim in the office of the Clerk of the Court. This petition embodies—

(1) A statement of all facts connected with the case which may tend to substantiate his claim.
(2) A discussion of the law bearing on the facts described.
(3) The conclusions—viz., the distinct enunciation of the claim, the acknowledgment of which is required from the Court.

Taking, for instance, the simplest of claim, that for payment of goods sold and delivered by a tradesman to a customer, the conclusions would be framed in the following terms : " May the Court be pleased to decide with grant of costs that N. N. is A. B.'s debtor in the sum of ——— for goods sold and delivered, bearing interest at the rate of five per cent. per annum from the day of date of the summons."

A copy of this statement of claim is served upon the defendant, together with a notice delivered by the Court that, within the term of (usually) twenty days, the defendant must file his statement of defence drawn up in the same form as that of the plaintiff's demand.

In his answer the defendant either admits or denies the statements made on the other side.

All uncontradicted facts are considered as proved by the defendant's admission, and it is not necessary subsequently to confirm them by means of oral or documentary evidence. The statements which are denied have to be substantiated at a later stage of the proceedings. Having thus disposed of his adversary's facts, the defendant enumerates those which he considers likely to justify his resistance to the original claim or to substantiate any counter-claim which he may desire to introduce.

The answer further contains a discussion and refutation of

the plaintiff's arguments, and, finally, states the defendant's conclusions.

A copy is served upon the plaintiff, and as no reply in writing is allowed by the law, the parties can only await the day appointed by the President for the preliminary oral proceedings in order to determine the facts still in dispute, and to settle in what manner the requisite evidence shall be procured.

All these preliminary proceedings take place in the presence and under the direction of the President of the Court sitting alone, with the assistance of the clerk who keeps the minute book or journal (*procès-verbal*) of the Court.

At this hearing before the President, advocates are not only allowed to appear, but their presence is considered necessary.

The plaintiff, not being permitted to file a reply in writing to the defendant's statement of defence, deals at once, before the President, with the defendant's statements.

Both parties are allowed now to supplement their original statements by the introduction of others. The disputed facts on both sides remain to be proved, and each party gives notice of the manner in which he intends submitting evidence, whether documentary or oral.

All these matters having been duly specified and settled, the Court meets on the day appointed for the trial. The President conducts the examination of the parties and witnesses, and the advocates are allowed to put supplementary questions, but any attempt at brow-beating would immediately call for the President's interference and be put a stop to. Speaking generally, less licence is allowed to the cross-examining advocate than is the case in England.

After the evidence has been heard, each advocate argues his case, the proceedings in public are then closed, and the Court retires to deliberate. The President recalls in succession each material fact as to which oral evidence has been given, and the members of the Court give their opinions separately. Each then votes as to whether the alleged fact may be considered as proved or not.

The conflicting conclusions are read to the Court, the arguments discussed by counsel in their pleadings are examined, and the Court decides.

Full liberty is granted to the Court to allow less than was claimed, but it has no power to grant more, however justified such a decision might be in equity.

The costs are either entirely or partially payable by the losing side, in the discretion of the Court.

The procedure in a civil suit before the Juge de Paix pursues the same general lines, but is necessarily of a somewhat more summary character.

Appeals to the higher Court are made in the form of a petition (recours) filed in the office of the clerk of the District Court; from there it is forwarded to the Cantonal Tribunal with a copy of the decision, journal of proceedings, and all other documents.

The appeal has for its object either the annulment of the decision as embodying violations of the positive text of the law, or the reconsideration of the decision on the ground of a mistaken interpretation of the law as applied to the circumstances of the case.

On the appointed day counsel on both sides argue the case, and the members of the Court discuss the question, *coram populo*, in the presence of the parties. If the decision is annulled, the Court orders the transfer of the suit to a neighbouring District Court for a fresh trial. If the appeal is for reconsideration, the Court either revises, varies, or confirms the decision.

Witnesses never appear before the Cantonal Tribunal and, according to the law of procedure, there is no appeal from findings of fact by the Court below.

The suit which has passed through all the degrees of jurisdiction may still be re-opened if, within the year following the final decision, the defeated party discovers a deed or document, the exhibition of which in due time or place must have ensured success; or if the other party, or one of the witnesses, has

subsequently been tried and condemned for perjury committed in the course of the case ; or if a document mentioned in the decision as having formed a material ground of the Court's opinion is proved in a criminal court to be a forgery.

The decision as to whether the suit may or may not be re-opened rests with the Cantonal Tribunal ; if a re-hearing is granted, the parties find themselves replaced in the position they occupied before proceedings were originally instituted.

Criminal Suits.

In criminal matters the indictment is first read, then the President examines the accused, after which the members of the jury, the counsel for the prosecution (Substitut du Procureur-Général), the counsel for the complainant (if any) and the counsel for the accused examine him in their turn ; the witnesses are thereupon called successively to give their evidence, after which the counsel for the complainant and the counsel for the prosecution address the Court, and, finally, the counsel for the accused is allowed the last word.

The President then announces the questions he proposes to leave to the jury ; the parties are allowed to challenge these questions, the final decision resting in all cases with the Court. The President having put the questions as finally settled by the Court to the jury, the latter body retire to consider their verdict ; if they cannot agree, a minority of four in favour of the accused is sufficient to secure his acquittal. The verdict once given, the jury's mission is at an end, and the members are dismissed by the President ; if the verdict is favourable, the Court orders the immediate release of the accused ; if unfavourable, the counsel are successively heard as regards the penalty applicable, and the Court decides.

The accused is allowed, provided he do so within three days from the date of his sentence, to appeal to the Cour de Cassation Pénale.

Before this Court, as in civil matters before the Cantonal Tribunal, witnesses are not admitted, the findings of the jury as to the facts being final and conclusive.

If the sentence be reversed and the decision annulled for irregularity in the proceedings, the case is referred to another criminal court, where a new jury is impanelled and a fresh trial takes place.

If the decision be merely reconsidered, this affects the penalty only, which may be inflicted in a more severe form or brought down to a lower scale.

Any convicted person has always the right of appeal for a revision of the proceedings or sentence on his original trial, and it is granted under conditions very much the same as those mentioned as prevailing under analogous circumstances in civil matters.

The law, it may be remarked, takes care to ensure citizens against the possibility of arbitrary arrest; no one may be arrested on mere suspicion of crime, or unless actually caught *flagrante delicto*, without a warrant from a competent magistrate; any person who is arrested, must be examined by the judge within twenty-four hours, and as soon as the preliminary investigation has come to a close, the magistrate, before sending his report to the Tribunal d'Accusation, provides for the appointment of a counsel for the defence, under whose advice further inquiries are to be made whenever he considers it advisable in his client's interest.

It is probably known that in Switzerland there are no *avoués*, as in France, but only *avocats*, who act at the same time as advocates and solicitors. Each canton lays down its own rules with respect to the practice of the legal profession; but when an advocate has passed certain technical examinations, the Federal Constitution grants to him the right to practise in all parts of Switzerland. The chief function of notaries is to draw up documents, to administer oaths, and to witness signatures. In some cantons the same person can be both advocate and notary. Both are in general permitted to practise, after having obtained certificates that they have passed an examination before a cantonal committee. In case of misconduct, the offender is punished by the highest tribunal of his canton.

A few words may be added respecting the gaols. They do not exist in all cantons, so that convicts from one canton have sometimes to be received in gaols of another. It has several times been proposed to establish a federal gaol for dangerous criminals, or for vicious youths, but without success.

Solitary confinement is sometimes resorted to, generally during the early period of imprisonment, or by way of punishment. There are no treadmills, and corporal punishment has been abolished by the Federal Constitution. In some prisons wine and tobacco are interdicted; in others, the prisoners are allowed to buy these luxuries.

Convicts who behave themselves well are promoted from one class to a higher, and enjoy some small privileges; and after serving two-thirds of their term, if over a year, they may be conditionally released. They then, until the expiration of their original term of imprisonment, remain under the supervision of the police, and may, without previous notice, upon a mere order of the cantonal department of justice, and for the smallest breach of good conduct, be sent to prison to serve out the remainder of their full term, the intermediate time spent out of gaol being in such cases counted for nothing. This privilege is never granted to anyone who has been twice convicted.

Some few particulars relative to the organization of the civil and criminal procedure in the Federal and Cantonal Courts of law will not be out of place in a work of this kind.[1] The cantons enjoy sovereign rights, except where from time to time the general law has superseded the particular cantonal law.

Tribunals.

In the French cantons, except Geneva, the Code Napoléon is the basis of the law. German-Switzerland has various codes for the cantons. As stated, a new general code of laws will become operative in three years' time.

The Federal Tribunal was instituted by the Constitution of 1848. Its first rudiments, according to Dr. Dubs, are to be

[1] *Swiss Confederation* (Macmillan & Co., 1889).

found in the alliances of 1291 and 1315 between three primitive cantons, and by the latter of the two it was provided that the best and wisest should meet together, and put an end to war or discord between the Confederates, amicably or according to right. But when Zurich joined the League in 1350 it was agreed that disputes should be decided by tribunals of arbitrators, and until 1848 the only mode of settling international quarrels was by means of arbitration, a system which could not always be satisfactory.

Up to 1874 this supreme Tribunal, established since 1848, had no permanent seat in any one particular place. It met in different towns, and in general for short periods. But when, upon the adoption of the Constitution of 1874, its functions were materially increased and it rose considerably in importance, a permanent abode had to be chosen for the highest Court of Justice. After considerable discussion Lausanne was fixed upon by the chambers, and on that town was imposed the obligation of supplying the necessary buildings. This decision was a concession to the feeling of French Switzerland, and it was also, perhaps, thought well that the Federal Tribunal should not be in contact with the political atmosphere of Berne. The present structure is vastly superior to that in which the sittings were previously held.

The judges are appointed by the Federal Assembly, care being taken that the three national languages are represented. Every Swiss citizen eligible for the National Council can be a judge of this court, but he cannot while holding such judicial office be a member of the Federal Assembly or of the Federal Council, nor an official appointed by either of those bodies, nor accept any other post, either in the service of the Confederation or of a canton, nor indeed follow any profession.

The Constitution of 1874 having been adopted, a federal law was drawn up fixing the organization of the federal judiciary, the number of its members and substitutes, the duration of their functions, their salaries, and other matters. It bears date the 27th June of that year.

The members of this judiciary are nine in number, and they are elected for six years by the Federal Assembly, which appoints the President and Vice-President out of the nine every two years. The judges can be, and often are, re-elected at the expiration of their term of office. Nine substitutes are chosen to serve in case of necessity, also for six years. The term of service for these judicial posts is thus double that of the members of the Federal and National Councils. The salary of the President is 11,000 fr., and that of each of the other judges 10,000 fr. a year. In all cases an uneven number of judges must sit, including the President, who takes part in the deliberations and in the voting.

No judge or substitute can exercise his functions where he, his wife, his betrothed, a relation in the direct line or in the collateral line up to and including his first cousin, or the husband of his wife's sister, has a direct or indirect interest; or in matters where his ward is concerned, or in which he has already been engaged in some other capacity; or where his canton of origin or his commune is a party; or where appeals are brought against the legislative authorities or the government of his canton.

The Federal Tribunal.

Since 1874 the Federal Tribunal has been not only a court of civil and of criminal justice, but it also deals with questions of public law. Its attributions comprise criminal, civil, and political matters, and its proceedings are governed by certain articles of the Federal Constitution, and by the organization law of June 27th, 1874, already mentioned.

The different attributions of the Federal Tribunal are the following—

(1) As a court of civil justice.

It is competent to decide upon disputes respecting civil rights: (*a*) Between the Confederation and one or more cantons; (*b*) between cantons; (*c*) between corporations or individuals as plaintiffs and the Confederation as defendant; (*d*) between cantons on the one part and corporations or

individuals on the other, but it is only when one of the parties demands it that a suit in this category can be heard before the Federal Tribunal at once.

The matter in dispute in the last two cases must amount to 3,000 fr., at least, in order to be judged by the Tribunal. In all four the suit is brought directly before it, and not on appeal from a cantonal court.

The Federal Tribunal is alone competent to decide disputes between communes of different cantons concerning citizenship, where one commune contends that a certain individual is not its citizen, and that it is therefore not obliged to acknowledge and provide for him as such ; ordinary disputes between two or more communes of the same canton are, however, submitted to the local courts.

Questions relating to Heimatloset, expropriations, for the construction of railways, and other works of public utility, civil questions between the Confederation and railway companies, and the winding-up of the latter, go directly before the Federal Tribunal. The provisions with respect to railway companies are, however, to be regarded in the light of an exceptional measure, and as such are expressly mentioned in the law of organization.

The Tribunal is also bound to judge the following two cases : (*a*) Those which by the constitution or the legislation of a canton are entrusted to its competency—such provisions are only valid if they have been ratified by the Federal Assembly ; (*b*) those which are brought before it by agreement between the parties, where the matter in dispute amounts in value to 3,000 fr. at least.

(2) · As a court of appeal.

In cases where federal laws have to be applied by cantonal tribunals, and the amount of the matter in dispute is 3,000 fr. at least, or cannot be estimated, either party has, by virtue of an article in the organization law, the right to have recourse to the Federal Tribunal against the judgment of the highest Cantonal Tribunal.

To this category now belong the federal laws respecting contracts (other than those relating to real estate), copyright, protection of trade-marks, and divorce and nullity of marriage.

Contracts relating to the sale and purchase by the law of each canton. In general, questions as to the devolution of property by will or upon intestacy are regulated by the ordinary cantonal courts, and are not within the competency of the Federal Tribunal, even upon appeal.

(3) As a court for the administration of criminal justice.

The Federal Tribunal, assisted by a jury, takes cognizance of the following cases: (*a*) High treason against the Confederation, such as being concerned in an attempt to overthrow the Federal Constitution by force; (*b*) revolt or violence against federal authorities; (*c*) crimes and offences which are the cause or the consequence of troubles occasioning an armed intervention by the federal authority; (*e*) charges against officials appointed by a federal authority, when the latter makes application to the Federal Tribunal.

For the administration of criminal justice the Federal Tribunal is divided by the organization law into three sections. There is a Chamber of Accusation with three ordinary members and three substitutes; a Criminal Chamber with the like number, which takes part in all the sessions of the Federal Assizes; and a Court of Criminal Appeal (Tribunal de Cassation) with five members and three substitutes. One of the former must be the President for the time being of the Federal Tribunal. Sentences are only valid when the Court consists of five judges.

The Federal Assizes are composed of the Criminal Chamber and a jury of twelve elected in the cantons by the people, and drawn by lot from the list of the district in which the Assizes are to be held. The territory of the Confederation is divided into five assize districts. There is one juror for every 1,000 inhabitants in four districts comprising the cantons and portions of cantons where French or German is the national language, and one for every 500 in Ticino and the Italian

communes of the Grisons, which together constitute the fifth district. With certain exceptions, every citizen having the right to vote in federal matters is eligible as a juror. Those are exempt who are of the full age of sixty, whose names were placed on the previous list of jurors, or who are incapacitated by sickness or infirmity. The lists of jurors are renewed every six years.

When the Assizes are to be held, the Criminal Chamber causes the names of all the jurors of the district to be placed in an urn, and fifty-four are drawn by lot. The Procureur-Général chosen by the Federal Council for the particular case, has the right to refuse twenty, and the accused twenty also. The remaining fourteen are summoned, and two of this number are selected by lot to act as substitutes in case of need, so that the jury consists of twelve, as mentioned above. In order to acquit or condemn a prisoner there must be a majority of at least ten out of the twelve, otherwise a fresh trial must take place with another jury.

(4) As a court to decide upon questions of public law.

Its powers were very considerably enlarged in 1874. By the Constitution of 1848, all appeals in such questions were brought before the Federal Council, and there was a further appeal to the Federal Assembly. If the two Chambers agreed their decision was final, otherwise the decision of the Federal Council prevailed. The examination and discussion of these appeals occupied a large portion of the time of the Chambers, and it was found very difficult to establish a uniform jurisdiction, because political questions and questions of public law could not easily be separated. It was, therefore, a great step in the way of progress to place the constitutional rights of cantons and citizens, by way of appeal, under the guarantee of the judicial authority, and by virtue of Article 113 of the Constitution of 1874, together with certain provisions in the organization law, the Tribunal has now cognizance of: (*a*) conflicts of competency between federal and cantonal authorities; (*b*) such disputes between cantons as are within the domain of

public law; (*c*) claims for violation of rights of citizens or corporations guaranteed by the federal laws which have been passed in execution of the federal Constitution; (*e*) claims of individuals or of corporations for violation of concordats between cantons, as well as of treaties with foreign countries.

By this Article what are termed "administrative disputes" were reserved to be dealt with by federal legislation, and accordingly the organization law enumerated certain of these matters which were to be treated, not by the judicial authority, but by one or other of the two political authorities of the Confederation. Among them are disputes respecting public primary schools of the cantons, liberty of commerce and trade, rights of established Swiss, and some religious matters.

The competency in administration disputes does not therefore belong entirely either to the political authorities or to the judicial authority, and, according to Dr. Dubs, it is difficult to trace any line in all disputes between the Confederation and the cantons as to the limits of their reciprocal sovereignty. This should be left absolutely to the Federal Tribunal, whatever the subject might be, and he draws attention to the fact that certain religious matters are included under the head of administrative disputes.

Religion and the Law Courts.

When the question of revising the Constitution of 1848 was being discussed, the competency to be given to the political and judicial authorities in religious matters was debated at much length, and it was ultimately settled by the Federal Assembly that both political authorities should in general have cognizance of religious disputes relating to matters of public law, whilst those within the domain of private law should be relegated to the Federal Tribunal. The Article respecting the interdiction upon Swiss soil of the Jesuits and societies affiliated to their order was particularly left to be dealt with by the political authorities.

It surely would have been better, as that great authority Dr. Dubs ardently desired, to give to the federal judiciary

cognizance of all these religious disputes, whether in the domain of public or of private law, than (as sometimes happens) that the Federal Assembly, which is a legislative body, should be transformed for the nonce into a sort of religious tribunal, where such matters are apt to rouse political passions, and to be decided by a majority simply upon party lines rather than upon legal principles.

It has already been mentioned in Chapter IV that by the Constitution of 1874 the Federal Council has to provide for the execution of the judgments of the Federal Tribunals, and that these must be carried out by means of cantonal authorities.

The deliberations of the Federal Tribunal are public except in the case of juries and of the Chamber of Accusation. Each judge records his vote in public, but he is permitted to deliver his judgment in his own language, whether French, German, or Italian. The fact, stated above, that no judge can sit in a matter which concerns his own canton, may on occasion cause anomalous results, inasmuch as in two similar cases the majority may decide one way in one case and another way in another.

The Civil Code, which has been revised, came into force on January 1st, 1912, thus doing away with certain anomalies in the dispensation of justice in certain cantons.

The new Code is Federal, applicable alike to all cantons. The new order in no way affects the fundamental organisation of the Courts of Law, mainly dealt with in the preceding chapter. The Code may be summed up as guaranteeing a more vigilant protection extended to minors ; the faculty, too, afforded married people to choose between divorce or a judicial separation ; the restitution to woman of civil rights (no political vote, however) to enable her to go to law without her husband's consent ; the seizure of part of a man's salary in the event of his not providing for his family. Paternal responsibility in cases of illegitimates is provided for, and various considerations concerning inheritances, legacies, etc.

The Penal Code is still in course of revision by the jurists.

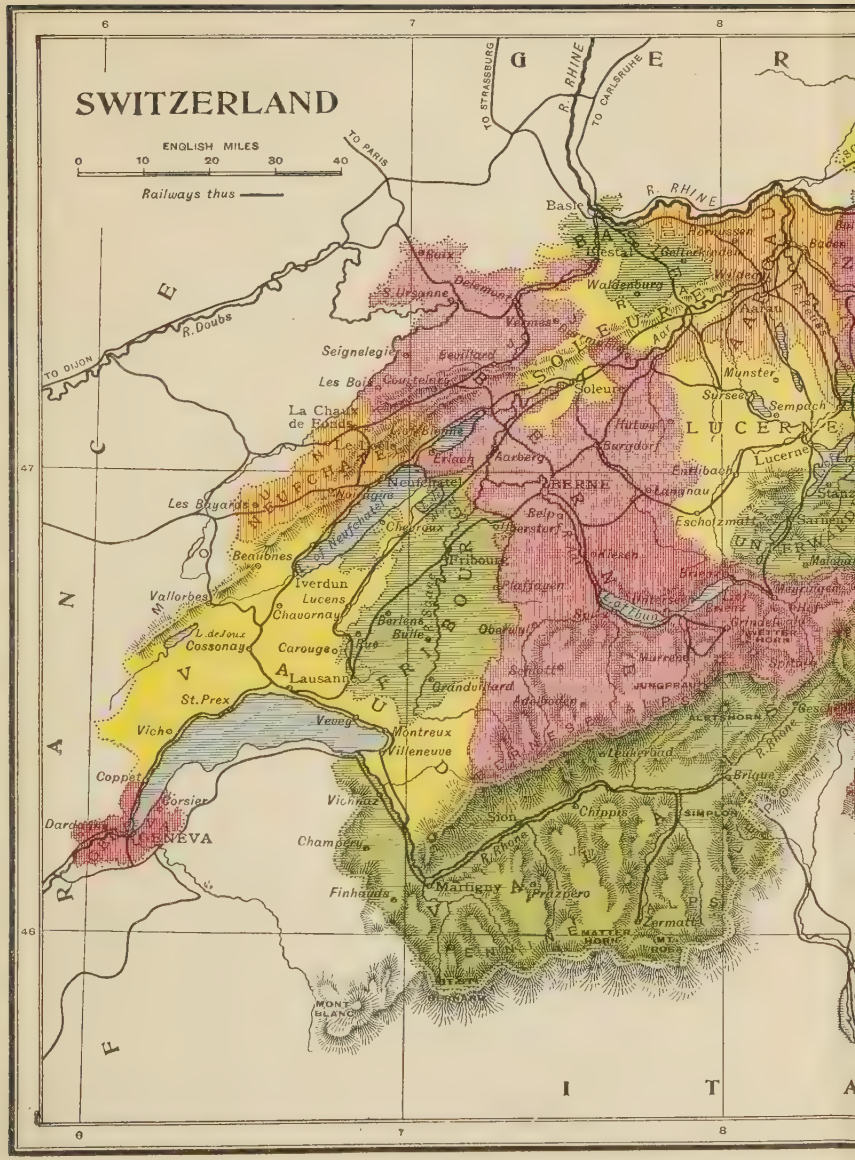
APPENDIX A

It is, perhaps, well to mention the power of organization in an industry which relies entirely upon foreign travellers. The State railways of Switzerland have opened offices in the principal capitals of countries whence they draw their custom. The various local hotel syndicates subsidize the undertaking ; thus illustrated guides, in four languages, amongst others "Winter in Switzerland," are distributed broadcast.

The foreign agencies advertise in the likeliest newspapers. Thus tourists have been attracted in increasing numbers, for it is only logical that the traveller will decide on the place to go to, all the difficulties of which trip have been carefully explained to him, time tables provided, and all cost put down in black and white. For Paris alone, the number of excursion tickets issued by the Swiss Railway Office rose from 311,971 in 1904 to 1,110,710 in 1907. The company's contribution towards general advertising, offices, etc., amounts to 350,000 francs.

APPENDIX B

The section of the Jungfrau Railway, from Eismeer to Jungfraujoch, was opened in July, 1912. Electric trains now run from the Little Scheidegg to this point, the highest railway station in Europe (11,500 ft.), standing amidst eternal snow and icefields. Alighting from the train and passing through a small side tunnel, one steps upon a large platform built upon the rocks. From this point the visitor looks down upon that mighty frozen river, the Aletsch Glacier, which stretches away for miles, its course marked by innumerable snow-capped peaks. Close at hand is the jagged summit of the Jungfrau itself, unrecognizable from this side to those who have seen it only from Interlaken. A path has been blasted in the rocks from the tunnel's mouth to the summit of the Joch, and from thence the visitor commands a view of the whole of Northern Switzerland. The eye sweeps over the lesser Alps, near at hand, to the plains of the north and the outskirts of the Black Forest. The peaks of the Eiger and Monk are strangely unfamiliar seen from this vantage, while mountains, whose height is from 9,000 to 10,000 ft., like the Schynige Platte, Faulhorn, and others, seem dwarfed to foothills.


SWITZERLAND
ENGLISH MILES
0 10 20 30 40
Railways thus
TO PARIS
TO DIJON
TO STRASSBURG
TO CARLSRUHE
R. RHINE
R. Doubs
R. Rhone
R. Aar
Basle
Bâle
Delemont
St. Ursanne
Seignelegier
Les Bois
Courtelary
La Chaux de Fonds
Neufchatel
Les Bayards
Beaubes
Iverdun
Vallorbes
Lucens
Chavornay
Cossonay
Carouge
Lausanne
St. Prex
Vevey
Vicho
Montreux
Villeneuve
Coppet
Versier
Vichnaz
Dardagny
GENEVA
Champeri
Finhauts
Martigny
Sion
Chippis
Brigue
Simplon
Leuk
Leukerbad
Zermatt
Matterhorn
Mont Blanc
Berne
Thun
Interlaken
Lucerne
Sursee
Sempach
Munster
Soleure
Olten
Aarau
Zofingen
Zurich
Waldenburg
Liestal
Porrentruy
Moutier
Tavannes
Biel
Neuveville
Erlach
Aarberg
Burgdorf
Huttwyl
Langnau
Escholzmatt
Belpa
Oberhofen
Thun
Spiez
Frutigen
Kandersteg
Gemmi
Leuk
Visp
Brieg
Aletschhorn
Jungfrau
Grindelwald
Lauterbrunnen
Meiringen
Brienz
Sarnen
Stanz
Altorf
Wesen
Glarus
Schaffhausen
Waldshut
Laufenburg
Aarau
Baden
Zofingen
Sursee
Sempach
Lucerne
Stanz
Sarnen
Altorf
Glarus
Wesen
Schaffhausen
Waldshut
Laufenburg
Baden
Zurich
Winterthur
Frauenfeld
Constance
Lake of Constance
Lake of Geneva
Lake of Neufchatel
Lake of Thun
Lake of Brienz
Lake of Lucerne
Lake of Zurich
Lake of Zug
Lake of Walenstadt
Lake of Wallenstadt
Lake of Constance
Lake of Geneva
Lake of Neufchatel
Lake of Thun
Lake of Brienz
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